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INTERVIEW OF ST AUGUSTINE AND HIS MONKS WITH KING ETHELBERT

THE HISTORY OF ENGLAND

FOR

THE USE OF SCHOOLS,

AND

Young Persons,

BY W. F. MYLIUS

MASTER OF MANOR HOUSE SCHOOL CHELSEA

New Edition

ST. PATRICK CONVERTING THE IRISH

London

THOMAS JONES,

PATERNOSTER ROW.

1860.

AN ABRIDGED

HISTORY OF ENGLAND,

WITH AN ABSTRACT OF THE CONSTITUTION;

A GEOGRAPHICAL TREATISE,

AND AN EXPLANATORY INDEX OF TECHNICAL AND OTHER TERMS,

DESIGNED PRINCIPALLY

FOR THE USE OF

Catholic Seminaries,

AND

YOUNG PERSONS,

BROUGHT DOWN TO THE YEAR 1860.

BY W. F. MYLIUS,

MASTER OF MANOR HOUSE SCHOOL, CHELSEA.

APPROBATION OF THE RIGHT REV. DR. MILNER, TO THE FIRST EDITION.

"SIR,—From a slight inspection of your History, my conviction is, that it is a valuable acquisition to our Catholic Seminaries, of both sexes: as such, I shall not fail to recommend it to them and their Superiors, as far as my influence extends.

"*To Mr. Mylius.*"

APPROBATION OF THE RIGHT REV. DR. WISEMAN.

"*Golden Square, May 26th*, 1849.

"DEAR SIR,—I beg to thank you for your letter and accompanying work. I am acquainted with your History, and have always highly valued it.

"I am ever, Dear Sir,

"*W. F. Mylius, Esq.*

"Yours sincerely in Christ,

"✠ N. WISEMAN."

TENTH EDITION.

LONDON:

PRINTED FOR THE AUTHOR, AND SOLD BY

T. JONES, PATERNOSTER ROW; & ALL BOOKSELLERS.

1860

PREFACE.

In presenting these Elements of the English History to the Public, the Author has no pretensions to novelty or celebrity. His sole object in this abridgement was, the improvement of the numerous and respectable pupils under his tuition. A competent acquaintance with the principal transactions of their own country, was, he knew, a necessary accomplishment. But in imparting this knowledge to his elèves, who are all Catholics, he could not, consistently with his own principles, submit to their perusal, histories of the country, which grossly misrepresent the religion and political conduct of their body: this led him to the compilation of the present work. In the course of his labours, Truth was his only object, and he has pursued it without recrimination or controversial acrimony. If he has presented facts in a different shape, it was under the conviction that they had been distorted, and that the Catholics of this country had been too often victims to prejudice and party intrigue.

In the management of his matter, he has consulted at once, the improvement and convenience of his pupils; as far as the limits of an elementary work would admit, he has called their attention to leading and prominent transactions; and, at different intervals of the history, he has dwelt with some detail on the progressive manners, customs, attire, literature, legislation, and religion of the country. The work having passed through five editions, the Author trusts he may presume upon having secured the approbation of the Catholic public, and that this sixth edition will be no less favourably received.

GEOGRAPHY

OF

GREAT BRITAIN.

GREAT BRITAIN, the largest of all the European isles, extends from the Lizard's Point, latitude 50° north, to Dunsbay Head, 58° 40′ north, about six hundred miles, and from Dover Head east to Land's End west, about three hundred miles.

ANCIENT GEOGRAPHY.

Great Britain was divided by the Romans into, 1. Britannia Romana; and 2. Britannia Barbara.

Britannia Romana was subdivided into Britannia Prima, Secunda, Valentia, Maxima Cæsariensis, and Flavia Cæsariensis, the limits of which are not known. Britannia Barbara, or Caledonia, was never subdued by the Romans, who penetrated no further than the Montes Grampii. It was inhabited by the Caledonians and Picts, and, at a later time, by the Scoti or Scots, who were supposed by some to have been of Irish origin.

At the invasion by the Romans, England, including Wales, was divided into 17 petty states, called by them:

1. The Brigantes inhabited the greater part of the counties of Durham, York, Cumberland, Westmoreland, and Lancashire. Their chief cities were Eboracum, now York; and Isurium, now Aldborough, reduced to a small village.

2. The Parisi occupied the south-eastern angle of Yorkshire, now called Holderness, along the coast of Bridlington or Burlington Bay.

3. The Ordovices inhabited North Wales.

4. The Cornavii occupied Cheshire, Shropshire, Stafford, Worcester, and Warwick. *Chief Towns:* Deva

or Deuna, now Chester; and Uiroconium, supposed to be Utoxeter, near Shrewsbury.

5. The Coritanii inhabited the counties of Derby, Nottingham, Lincoln, Leicester, Rutland, and part of Northampton.—*Chief Towns:* Lindum, now Lincoln, and Rhage, now Leicester.

6. The Catevchlani or Catuellani are supposed to have occupied the remainder of Northampton, with Buckingham, Bedford, Hertford, and Huntingdon, and perhaps a part of Oxfordshire, bordering on the Thames. One of their towns was Urolanium or Verulam, near St. Alban's, in Hertfordshire.

7. The Simeni or Iceni are believed to have inhabited Norfolk, Suffolk, and Cambridge.—*Chief Town*: Venta, near Norwich.

8. The Trinoantes or Trinobantes possessed Essex and Middlesex.—*Chief Town:* Camelodunum near Malden, or according to some, near Colchester.

9. The Demetæ seem to have occupied the three south Welsh counties of Cærmarthen, Cardigan, and Pembroke. One of their towns, Maridunum, is believed to be Cærmarthen.

10. The Silures occupied Radnor, Brecknock, Glamorgan, Hereford, and Monmouth.—*Chief Towns:* Venta Silurum, now Cærwent; and Isca Silurum, now Cærleon, in Monmouthshire.

11. The Dobuni inhabited Gloucestershire, and the greater part of Oxfordshire.—*Chief Town:* Corinicim, the present Cirencester.

12. The Attrebati occupied Berkshire.

13. The Cantii had Kent, part of Middlesex, and Surrey.—*Chief Towns:* Londinum, London, Daruenum or Durovernum, believed to be Canterbury; and Rutupiæ, probably Richborough, near Sandwich, in the Isle of Thanet.

14. The Regni occupied a part of Surrey, Sussex, and the greater part of Hampshire.

15. The Belgæ are supposed to have possessed the eastern part of Somersetshire, Wilts, and the western part of Hampshire. Their towns were Venta Belgarum,

believed to be Winchester; Ischelis, Ilchester; and Aquæ Calidæ, Bath.

16. The Durotriges had Dorsetshire.—*Chief Town:* Durnium, now Dorchester.

17. The Dumnonii inhabited Devonshire, Cornwall, and the west of Somersetshire.—*Chief Town:* Isca, supposed to be Exeter.

Ptolemy's description of North Britain is not so satisfactory as that which he has given of the South. He has made a strange mistake, by giving as the difference of longitude, what he ought to have given as the difference of latitude. The first Northern people he mentions, are:—

1. The Novantæ. They are supposed to have occupied Wigton, part of Kirkcudbright, and the south of Ayrshire.—*Chief Town:* Loucopibia, now Whithorn.

2. The Selgoviæ, who had the eastern part of Kirkcudbright, and the greater part of Dumfriesshire. They are thought to have given their name to the Solway, or to have received theirs from it. The Solway is called by Ptolemy the Ituna.

3. The Damnii seem to have extended over Ayrshire, Lanark, Renfrew, and Stirling, a corner of Dumbarton, and a small part of Perth. Their *Chief Towns* were Vanduara, supposed to be Paisley; and Linduni, now Linlithgoe. The wall of Antoninus passed through their territory.

4. The Gadeni, supposed to have inhabited the north of Cumberland, the west of Northumberland, the west of Roxburgh, with the counties of Selkirk, Peebles, West Lothian, and the greater part of Mid Lothian. The town of Jedburgh and the river Jed, seem still to retain the name of Gadeni.

5. The Otadeni possessed the remaining part of Northumberland and Roxburgh, with the whole of Berwick and East Lothian.

6. The Epidii possessed the peninsula of Cantyre, and nearly all Argyleshire.

7. The Cerones had the remaining part of Argyleshire, and the western half of Inverness.

8. The Creones probably occupied nearly the whole of Ross-shire.

9. The Carnonacæ had the west coast of Sutherland, and a small part of Ross-shire.

10. The Careni inhabited the north part of Sutherland, and perhaps a small portion of Caithness.

11. The Cornavii occupied the north and east of Caithness. In their country are the three promontories of the Tarvedrun or Orchas, now Dunnet-head; and the Virubium, now the Noss-head.

12. The Caledonii occupied, probably, the eastern part of Inverness, with perhaps the adjoining parts of the shires of Argyle, Perth, and Ross. In the north-western part of this tract was the great Caledonian forest.

13. The Cantæ are supposed to have inhabited the eastern angle of Ross-shire.

14. The Logi possessed the southern part of Sutherland, and a part of the south of Caithness.

15. The Mertæ had the central parts of Sutherland.

16. The Vacomagi appear to have occupied the counties of Nairn, Elgin, and Banff, with the west of Aberdeenshire, and a small portion of the east of Inverness.

17. The Vonicontes are supposed to have had the whole of the peninsula now forming the counties of Fife, Kinross, and Clackmannan, with a portion of the east and south-east of Perth, and perhaps the counties of Forfar and Kincardine.

18. The Texali had Aberdeenshire, and a part of Kincardine.—*Chief Town:* Devana, on the Deva, now the Dee.

PRINCIPAL RIVERS.

Tamesis, the Thames. Sabrina, the Severn. Abus, the Humber, composed of the Ouse, Trent, and other branches. Tina, the Tyne. Vedra, the Were. Ituna, the Eden. Tuasis or Tuesis, the Tweed. Bodotria, the Forth. Glota, the Clyde. Taus, the Tay. Devana, the Dee.

ISLANDS.

The chief Islands round Britain as denominated by the Romans are: Vectis—Isle of Wight.

Cassiterides—supposed to be the Scilly Islands.

Mona—Anglesea.

Monædea or Mona—Isle of Man.

Ebudæ or Hebrides—the Scotch Western Isles.

Orcades—the Orkneys.

Ultima Thule—supposed to be the Shetland Isles.

MODERN GEOGRAPHY OF GREAT BRITAIN.

The island of Great Britain contains England, Scotland, and Wales.

Since the Norman conquest, England has been divided into six circuits, each containing a certain number of counties, which were subdivided into wapentakes, or hundreds, and parishes. These circuits and counties are as follows:

1. The Home Circuit, containing the following counties.

Essex.—*Chief Towns:* Chelmsford, Colchester, Harwich, Malden, Coggeshall, Witham, Brentwood.

Hertford or Herts.—Hertford, Royston, Hitchen, Ware, St. Alban's, Stevenage.

Kent.—Maidstone, Canterbury, Dover, Deal, Rochester, Chatham, Tonbridge, Margate, Gravesend, Woolwich, Greenwich.

Surrey.—Kingston, Croydon, Guildford, Farnham.

Sussex.—Chichester, Lewes, Horsham, Brighton, Hastings, Arundel.

2. The Norfolk Circuit, containing the following counties.

Buckingham or Bucks.—*Chief Towns:* Buckingham, Aylesbury, Newport Pagnell, Eton, Wycombe.

Bedford or Beds.—Bedford, Woburn, Dunstable.

HUNTINGDON.—Huntingdon, St. Ives, St. Neot's, Kimbolton.

CAMBRIDGE.—Cambridge, Ely, Newmarket, Wisbeach.

SUFFOLK.—Ipswich, Lowestoff, Bury St. Edmund's.

NORFOLK.—Norwich, Yarmouth, Lynn, Thetford.

3. The Oxford Circuit, containing the following counties:

OXFORD or OXON.—*Chief Towns:* Oxford, Witney, Woodstock, Banbury, Henley on Thames.

BERKSHIRE or BERKS.—Reading, Newbury, Windsor, Abingdon.

GLOUCESTER.—Gloucester, Tewkesbury, Stroud, Cheltenham, Cirencester, and part of Bristol, a county in itself.

WORCESTER.—Worcester, Dudley, Stourbridge, Kidderminster, Evesham.

MONMOUTH.—Monmouth, Chepstow, Abergavenny.

HEREFORDSHIRE.—Hereford, Ross, Leominster, Ledbury.

SHROPSHIRE.—Shrewsbury, Bridgenorth, Oswestry, Newport, Ellesmere, and Ludlow.

STAFFORDSHIRE.—Stafford, Lichfield, Burton, Newcastle-under-Line, Wolverhampton.

4. The Midland Circuit, containing the following counties:

WARWICK.—*Chief Towns:* Warwick, Coventry, Birmingham, Leamington, Stratford.

LEICESTER.—Leicester, Hinkley, Loughborough, Lutterworth, Melton Mowbray, Harborough.

DERBY.—Derby, Chesterfield, Buxton, Matlock, Ashborn.

NOTTINGHAM or NOTTS.—Nottingham, Mansfield, Newark, Worksop.

LINCOLN.—Lincoln, Boston, Gainsborough, Stamford, Louth.

RUTLAND.—Oakham, Uppingham.

NORTHAMPTON.—Northampton, Daventry, Peterborough.

5. Western Circuit, containing the following counties:

HAMPSHIRE or HANTS.—*Chief Towns:* Winchester, Portsmouth, Portsea, Gosport, Southampton, Lymington, Basingstoke, Ringwood, and Newport, Ryde, and Cowes, in the Isle of Wight.

WILTSHIRE.—Salisbury, Wilton, Devizes, Bradford, Trowbridge, Marlborough.

DORSETSHIRE.—Dorchester, Poole, Weymouth, Lyme Regis, Blandford, Shaftesbury, Bridport.

SOMERSETSHIRE.—Bath, Bristol in part, Wells, Frome, Taunton, Bridgewater.

DEVONSHIRE.—Exeter, Plymouth, Devonport, Sidmouth, Teignmouth, Dartmouth, Barnstable.

CORNWALL.—Launceston, St. Ives, Penzance, Falmouth, Truro, Penryn.

6. Northern Circuit, containing the following counties:

YORKSHIRE.—*Chief Towns:* York, Leeds, Hull, Sheffield, Whitby, Scarborough, Rippon, Halifax, Bradford, Wakefield, Huddersfield, Pontefract, Harrowgate.

DURHAM.—Durham, Bishop's-Auckland, South Shields, Sunderland, Hartlepool, Stockton, Darlington.

NORTHUMBERLAND. — Newcastle, Morpeth, Alnwick, North Shields, Hexham.

CUMBERLAND. — Carlisle, Whitehaven, Workington, Cockermouth, Penrith.

WESTMORELAND.—Appleby, Kendal.

LANCASHIRE. — Lancaster, Liverpool, Manchester, Preston, Wigan, Bolton, Rochdale, Warrington, Prescot, Blackburn.

CHESHIRE has its own jurisdiction, and forms a county palatine, containing Chester, Cholmondley, Namptwich, Middlewich, Northwich.

MIDDLESEX has also its own jurisdiction.—*Chief Towns:* London, Westminster, and Brentford.

Besides these forty counties, there are others to which the liberties and jurisdiction of counties have been granted by royal charter; as the cities of London, York, Chester, Bristol, Norwich, Worcester; the towns

of Newcastle-upon-Tyne, Kingston-upon-Hull, and Berwick-upon-Tweed, with a territory of about two miles on the north side of the river, which, although it lies in Scotland, is considered in law as distinct from both kingdoms.

RIVERS.

3. Avon; viz., one in Wiltshire, one in Gloucestershire, and one in Leicestershire.
1. Cam, in Cambridgeshire.
3. Derwent; one in Derby, one in Durham, and one in Cumberland.
1. Eden, in Cumberland.
1. Exe, in Somersetshire.
1. Frome, in ditto.
1. Hull, in Yorkshire.
1. Humber, between York and Lincolnshire.
1. Kennet, in Wilts.
1. Lea, in Hertfordshire.
1. New River, in ditto.
1. Lon, in Lancashire.
1. Medway, in Kent.
1. Mersey, in Cheshire.
4. Ouse; one in Sussex, one in Northamptonshire, one in Norfolk, and one in Yorkshire.
1. Ribble, Lancashire.
1. Severn, Bristol.
3. Stour; one in Dorsetshire, one in Kent, and one in Essex.
1. Tamar, Devonshire.
1. Tees, Cumberland.
1. Thames, Oxford and Middlesex.
1. Trent, Nottinghamshire.
1. Tweed, Berwick.
1. Witham, Lincolnshire.

PRINCIPAL LAKES.

Windermere, in Westmoreland.
Ullswater, in ditto.
Coniston, in Lancashire.

PRINCIPAL MOUNTAINS.

Cheviot, between England and Scotland.
Endle, Lancashire.

Fells, Cumberland and Yorkshire.
Malvern, Worcestershire.
Mendip, Somersetshiro.
Peak, Derbyshire.
Wrekin, Shropshire.

ISLANDS.

Thanet and Sheppey, on the Kentish coast.
Wight, on the Hampshire ditto.
Man, Irish Sea.
Scilly Isles, off Cornwall.
Holy, Farn, and Coquet, Northumberland.
Jersey, Guernsey, Alderney, and Sark, on the coast of France.

WALES

Is bounded on the east by Cheshire, Shropshire, and Hereford; on the south by Monmouthshire and the Bristol Channel; on the west by St. George's Channel, and on the north by the Irish Sea.

It contains twelve counties, viz., six northern and six southern.

The Northern are:

COUNTIES.	CHIEF TOWNS.
Flint,	Flint.
Denbigh,	Denbigh.
Caernarvon,	Caernarvon.
Anglesea,	Beaumaris.
Merioneth,	Harlech.
Montgomery,	Montgomery.

The Southern are:

Cardigan,	Cardigan.
Radnor,	Radnor.
Pembroke,	Pembroke.
Caermarthen,	Caermarthen.
Brecknock,	Brecknock.
Glamorgan,	Cardiff.

PRINCIPAL RIVERS.

Towy, Tivy, and Dee.

MOUNTAINS.

Snowdon, 3,700 feet high, Penmenmawr, Cader Idris, and Plinllimon.

SCOTLAND.

Scotland is divided into thirty-three counties, and is bounded on the south by England and the Solway Frith, on the east and north by the German Sea and Northern Ocean, and on the west by the Irish Sea.

The Northern are ten, viz.

COUNTIES.	CHIEF TOWNS.
Orkney and Shetland,	Kirkwall, Lerwick.
Caithness,	Wick, Thurso.
Sutherland,	Dornoch.
Ross,	Ross, Tain.
Cromarty,	Cromarty.
Nairne,	Nairne.
Murray, or Elgin,	Elgin.
Banff,	Banff.
Aberdeen,	Aberdeen.
Inverness,	Inverness.

The Middle Counties are nine :

Perth,	Perth.
Angus or Forfar,	Forfar, Montrose, Dundee.
Kinkardine,	Bervie.
Argyle,	Inverary.
Dumbarton,	Dumbarton.
Stirling,	Stirling.
Clackmannan,	Clackmannan.
Kinross,	Kinross.
Fife,	Cupar, St. Andrews.

Fourteen Southern :

Bute,	Rothsay.
Renfrew,	Renfrew, Greenock, Paisley.
Lanark,	Glasgow, Lanark.
Linlithgow, or West Lothian,	Linlithgow.
Edinburgh, or Mid Lothian,	Edinburgh, Leith.
Haddington, or East Lothian,	Haddington, Dunbar.
Peebles,	Peebles.
Berwick,	Dunse, Greenlaw.
Ayr,	Ayr.
Wigton,	Wigton.
Kirkcudbright,	Kirkcudbright.

COUNTIES.	CHIEF TOWNS.
Dumfries,	Dumfries.
Selkirk,	Selkirk.
Roxburgh,	Jedburgh, Kelso, Melrose.

Edinburgh, Glasgow, Aberdeen, and St. Andrew's, are celebrated seats of learning.

Glasgow is much noted for its great commerce.

ISLANDS.

The islands are very numerous. The principal are, the Hebrides, or Western Isles; the Orkney, the Shetland, or Zetland, isles; the isles of Skye, Arran, Bute, St. Kilda, and Mull.

LAKES.

Broom, Carron, Leven, Lomond, Ness, Tay, and Katrine.

PRINCIPAL RIVERS.

Tweed, Forth, Clyde, Tay, Spey, Dee, Don, Esk, Annan, Nith, and Ayr.

MOUNTAINS.

The Grampians, which separate the Lowlands from the Highlands of Scotland, running diagonally across the kingdom from Aberdeenshire to Dumbartonshire. The principal mountains of this range are Ben Lomond, Benlawers and Schichallain. The other chief mountains are Ben Nevis, 4,315 feet high; Ben Ledi, Ben Wyvis, Mealfourvounie, the Cheviot range, the Pentlands, and Lammermuir.

IRELAND

Is situated between 5° and 10° west longitude, and 51° and 56° north latitude, extending in length about 300 miles, and in breadth 150 miles.

It is divided into four provinces, viz. Ulster, north; Leinster, east; Munster, south; and Connaught, west; and contains about eight millions of inhabitants.

Ulster contains nine counties, viz.

COUNTIES.	CHIEF TOWNS.
Antrim,	Belfast, Carrickfergus.
Armagh,	Armagh.

COUNTIES.	CHIEF TOWNS.
Cavan,	Cavan.
Down,	Newry, Downpatrick.
Donegal,	Ballyshannon, Lifford.
Fermanagh,	Enniskillen.
Londonderry,	Derry.
Monaghan,	Monaghan.
Tyrone,	Strabane, Omagh.

Leinster contains twelve counties, viz.

Carlow,	Carlow.
Dublin,	Dublin.
Kildare,	Naas and Athy.
Kilkenny,	Kilkenny.
King's County,	Tullamore, Philipstown.
Longford,	Longford.
Lowth,	Drogheda.
East Meath,	Kells, Trim.
Queen's County,	Maryborough, Portarlington.
Westmeath,	Athlone, Mullingar.
Wexford,	Wexford.
Wicklow,	Arklow, Wicklow

Munster contains six counties:

Clare,	Ennis.
Cork,	Cork.
Kerry,	Tralee.
Limerick,	Limerick.
Tipperary,	Clonmel.
Waterford,	Waterford.

Connaught contains five counties:

Galway,	Galway.
Leitrim,	Leitrim.
Mayo,	Carrick on Shannon, Castlebar, Westport, Athlone.
Roscommon,	Roscommon.
Sligo,	Sligo.

Dublin is the chief city, and has a university.

PRINCIPAL RIVERS.

The Shannon, Foyle, Bann, Liffey, Boyne, Slaney, Suir, Barrow, Erne, Moy, Noir, Sark, and Gyll.

PRINCIPAL LAKES.

Neagh, Lean, Erine, Cori, and the beautiful Killarney.

MOUNTAINS.

Lugnaquilla, Wicklow, 3,000 feet high. Slieve Bloom, on the borders of King's County and Queen's County. The Gatties and Kerry mountains, which encircle the Killarney lakes. Magellicuddy Reeks, on the east of Killarney, 3,400 feet, the highest mountains in Ireland.

BRITISH CONSTITUTION.

The British Constitution is a limited monarchy, consisting of the united powers of King, Lords, and Commons. It originated among the Anglo-Saxons, and was brought to a considerable degree of perfection under Alfred the Great. It was afterwards greatly infringed upon by William the Conqueror, and some of his successors, but was restored by the Magna Charta, signed by King John.

The Executive power is vested in the King and his Ministers, Judges, and Juries.

The legislative authority is in the two houses of Parliament.

The throne is hereditary, and may be occupied by a female with the title of Queen, if nearest in lineal descent.

The King possesses the sole power of declaring war or making peace, of assembling or dissolving Parliament, of bestowing titles of honour, of giving or withholding his assent to proposed laws. He is the supreme head of the church as established by law, and supreme judge in every court of law; but he is equally bound to pay obedience to the laws as is the meanest of his subjects. His ministers are responsible for every act done in his name. He can pardon any criminal; but neither he nor his judges can condemn any one till he is found guilty by a jury of twelve men, the equals of the criminal.

The judges have their salaries for life, and are not removable at the pleasure of the King, but only on an address from both Houses of Parliament.

The King is not allowed to marry a subject.

The eldest son of the King is styled Prince of Wales and Duke of Cornwall.

The eldest daughter is styled Princess Royal.

The Peers or Lords are privileged from arrest, except for treason, felony, or other high crimes. The sheriff cannot search their houses except by warrant from the King signed by six privy councillors. They can sit on any bench of judicature, and are exempt from all offices of service.

The House of Lords consists of the Lords of the realm, spiritual, comprising the two Archbishops and twenty-four Bishops; of the temporal Peers, comprising the Peers of the Blood Royal, the whole of the hereditary English nobility bearing the titles of Dukes, Marquesses, Earls, Viscounts, and Barons; also of sixteen temporal Peers of Scotland; one Archbishop, three Bishops, and twenty-eight Irish temporal Peers. The roll of the Lords forming the House of Peers in the session of 1832, contained 426 Lords, including the Catholic Peers of England. They are thus distinguished:

Royal Dukes	4	Bishops	27
Archbishops	3	Barons	181
Dukes with English titles	21	Peers of Scotland	16
Marquesses	19	Peers of Ireland	28
Earls	109		
Viscounts	18	Total	426

The House of Commons consists of Representatives sent from counties, cities, and boroughs, elected by the people.

They have the power to examine into the conduct of any Peer, and to impeach any minister of the King. They can call the judges to account. They have the sole right of originating bills for granting supplies of money for the service of Government, and of inquiring into any national grievance. It consists of 658 members, viz. eighty for the forty counties of England, fifty for the cities, 339 for the Boroughs, two for each University, sixteen for the Cinque Ports, twenty for Wales, forty-five for Scotland, and 105 for Ireland. The counties are represented by knights of the shire, who must possess an estate in freehold or copyhold of £600 per

annum, and must be elected by persons possessing freehold land, situate within the county, of forty shillings per annum.

The cities are represented by citizens possessing a clear estate of £300 per annum.

The boroughs are represented by burgesses possessed of the same amount. In Scotland no such pecuniary qualification is requisite.

By the bill, called the Reform Bill, passed in 1832, fifty-six of the smallest boroughs were disfranchised, thirty more were reduced from two members each to one, and Weymouth and Melcombe Regis from four to two. In all, a reduction of 144 members. In the place of these, twenty-two large towns, Manchester, Birmingham, Leeds, Sheffield, Greenwich, Sunderland, Devonport, Wolverhampton, Bolton, Blackburn, Bradford, Brighton, Halifax, Macclesfield, Oldham, Stockport, Stoke-upon-Trent, Stroud, and four districts of the metropolis—Marylebone, Finsbury, the Tower Hamlets, and Lambeth, received each the right to elect two members; and twenty smaller towns, Ashton-under-Line, Bury, Chatham, Cheltenham, Dudley, Frome, Gateshead, Huddersfield, Kidderminster, Kendal, Rochdale, Salford, South Shields, Tynemouth, Wakefield, Walsall, Warrington, Whitby, Whitehaven, and Merthyr Tydvil, nominate one each. At the same time, twenty-seven counties send two additional members each, and seven one each.

The representation now stands as follows:

English Members for	Counties	143	
	Universities	4	
	Cities and Boroughs	324	
			471
Welsh	Counties	15	
	Cities and Boroughs	14	
			29
Scotch	Counties	30	
	Cities and Boroughs	23	
			53
Irish	Counties	64	
	University	2	
	Cities and Boroughs	39	
			105
		Total	658

The Privy Council is composed of persons appointed by the Sovereign, without restriction as to number. They are bound by oath to advise the Sovereign to the best of their judgment, with entire secrecy and fidelity. The Sovereign may conceal from, or declare to, his Privy Council whatever he may think fit, and he chooses a select number out of their body, called the Cabinet Council, composed chiefly of the ministers, in which are determined matters of the most importance, and requiring the greatest secrecy. A Privy Councillor, if only a private gentleman, is called Right Honourable, and takes precedence of all Knights, Baronets, and the younger sons of Viscounts and Barons. The officers of the Government or State are as follows:

OFFICERS FORMING THE CABINET COUNCIL.

First Lord of the Treasury (Prime Minister.)

Lord Chancellor.
Lord Privy Seal.
President of the Council.
Secretary of State for the Home Department.
Ditto for Foreign Affairs.
Secretary of State for Colonies and War.
Chancellor of the Exchequer.
First Lord of the Admiralty.
Master General of the Ordnance.
President of the Board of Control.
Chancellor of the Duchy of Lancaster.

Any of the other officers of state may sit in the Cabinet, if appointed.

OFFICERS OF STATE NOT OF THE CABINET.

Lord Chamberlain.
Lord Steward.
Master of the Horse.
Secretary at War.
Treasurer of the Navy.
President of the Board of Trade.
Paymaster of the Forces.
Vice-President of the Board of Trade.
Post-Master General.
Lieutenant-General of the Ordnance.
First Commissioner of the Land Revenue.
Attorney-General.
Solicitor-General.

OFFICERS OF STATE FOR IRELAND.

Lord Lieutenant.
Lord Chancellor.
Commander of the Forces.
Chief Secretary.
Vice-Treasurer.
Attorney-General.
Solicitor-General.

AN ABRIDGED
HISTORY OF ENGLAND.

BOOK I.

CHAPTER I.

ORIGIN AND MILITARY HISTORY OF THE BRITONS.

The learning and ingenuity of the historian have been frequently exercised, in attempts to ascertain the name and origin of the Britons. One of the most probable opinions is, that the inhabitants originally came from Gaul, and derived their name from a Celtic word, signifying separation, an idea natural enough to the natives of the Continent when speaking of our island. Virgil, in his first eclogue, calls our ancestors, "Et penitus toto divisos orbe Britannos:" "The Britons quite separated from the whole world."

The Britons, a fierce and warlike nation, had frequent encounters among themselves; and as Tacitus justly observes, "Nothing contributed so much to the advantage gained over them by the Romans, as their want of union and concert for their common interest." In their battles they used chariots, with short scythes fastened to each end of the axletrees; which inflicted dreadful wounds, and caused great terror in the ranks of the enemy. So expert were they in the management of these chariots, that they could stop their horses on the side of a steep hill when at full speed, turn them short round, run along upon the beam, rest upon the yoke, and in an instant recover their seats. Their arms were small shields, short daggers, and spears; helmets and breastplates they considered an incumbrance. They could endure hunger, cold, and all kinds of fatigue, with admirable patience; and continue for

several days together in bogs, and live in woods upon the bark and roots of trees.

The Britons had long remained in this rude but independent state, when Cæsar, having overrun Gaul, determined upon the conquest of a country that seemed to promise an easy triumph. (B. C. 55.) The natives, informed of his intention, and sensible of the unequal contest, endeavoured to avert it by offers of submission. He received their ambassador with a treacherous complacency, and at the same time that he exhorted them to continue steadfast in their peaceful sentiments, made preparations for the execution of his design. Embarking his army during the night, he arrived the next morning on the coast near Dover, where he beheld the rocks and cliffs covered with men to oppose his landing. The naked and ill-armed Britons made an obstinate and brave defence, but were at last obliged to submit to the superior discipline of the Romans, and to sue for peace. Cæsar, whose ships had been much damaged by a storm, very gladly granted their request, on condition of receiving a certain number of hostages; after which he set sail for Gaul, to repair his shattered fleet. The Britons, informed of his departure, broke their treaty, and fell suddenly upon the seventh legion, which after a bloody battle defeated them, and once more obliged them to sue for peace. Cæsar, in the mean time, having collected six hundred ships and twenty-eight galleys, again arrived off the coast. (B. C. 54.) The Britons had made the best use of the respite: they were this time headed by Cassibelanus, king of the Trinobantes. He did not oppose the landing of the troops, but attacked them with his chariots and cavalry on their march; they were, however, repulsed with loss, and driven into the woods, where the Romans pursuing them too eagerly, lost many of their men. This encouraged the Britons to make another fierce attack, in which they were again unsuccessful, and obliged to retreat. Cæsar pursuing his victory, marched towards the country of the Trinobantes. On his arrival on the banks of the river Thames, he found it fordable only at one place; the forces of Cassibelanus were drawn up on the opposite bank, which he had strongly fortified with large oaken staves driven into the bed of the river.

Cæsar crossing the river, marched to Verulam, the capital of Cassibelanus, which was soon taken. Cassibelanus, with courage unsubdued, although abandoned by the Trinobantes and several other tribes, as a last resource, drew into a confederacy four kings, chiefs of the Cantii, and proceeded to attack the camp which guarded the ships; but the Romans in a sally repulsed them with so great a slaughter, that Cassibelanus, seeing it in vain to contend any longer, concluded a peace with the Romans, stipulating to pay them an annual tribute, and delivering hostages for the faithful performance of the treaty. Cæsar then set sail with his whole fleet from Britain, to which place he never returned.

The departure of Cæsar, which happened about 54 years before the birth of Christ, left the Britons without fear of a foreign enemy; and it was not till the reign of Claudius that the Romans in good earnest set about reducing them under subjection. (A. D. 43.) An army under Plautius was ordered to Britain; the soldiers at first refused to embark, from a notion that they were going beyond the compass of the world, and this mutiny being reported to the Britons, made them neglect their means of defence. Plautius, therefore, landed his men without opposition; the Britons, on their approach, retired to the woods and marshes, whither the Romans following them, engaged first Caractacus, then Togodumnes, and defeated them both. The Britons, no way discouraged, continued the most determined resistance, and so weakened the army of Plautius by many bloody battles, that he did not think proper to pursue them any farther at that time; but putting garrisons into the conquered places, wrote to Claudius for supplies, who himself came over and joined Plautius on the banks of the Thames. The Romans, emboldened by the presence of the emperor, crossed the river and totally defeated the Britons.

Vespasian succeeded to the command, and fought no fewer than thirty battles against the Britons. Caractacus, on the other hand, king of the Silures, the greatest general among the Britons, with undisciplined forces, inferior in number, continued during nine years to oppose and harass the Romans. By his conduct and

policy he removed the seat of war to the territory of the Ordovices, a country full of high mountains and craggy rocks, where he strongly entrenched his army, determined to await the attack of the Romans. At their approach he harangued his soldiers, declaring that from that day and that battle they must date their liberty rescued, or their slavery for ever established. He then invoked the shades of those heroes who had expelled Julius Cæsar; those brave men, by whom they still enjoyed their homes and families unpolluted, and freedom from tribute and taxes. The whole army, animated to the highest pitch, took a solemn oath to conquer or die, and prepared for the charge with terrible shouts. But what could undisciplined bravery do against an army skilled in all the arts of war, and emboldened by the conquest of the world! The Britons, after a bloody battle, were totally routed, and Caractacus, who had fled for refuge to Cartismonda, queen of the Brigantes, was basely delivered to the enemy. The capture of this general was received with such joy at Rome, that he was ordered to be sent thither, and exhibited as a spectacle to the Romans.

Caractacus, while passing through Rome, casting his eyes upon the splendour that surrounded him, could not help exclaiming, "How is it possible that a people possessed of such magnificence at home, should envy me a humble cottage in Britain!" He bore his misfortune with undaunted firmness, and when led before the emperor, addressed him in the following manner:—"If my moderation in prosperity, O Claudius, had been as conspicuous as my birth or fortune, I should now have entered your city as a friend and not as a prisoner, but my misfortune redounds to your glory in proportion to the greatness of my opposition; I was lately possessed of subjects, horses, arms, and riches; can you be surprised if I endeavoured to preserve them? If you Romans, wish to conquer all the world, must all nations tamely submit to servitude? And now, if you resolve to put me to death, my story and your fame will be buried in oblivion; but if you think proper to preserve my life, I shall remain a lasting monument of your clemency." This speech had such an effect upon

Claudius, that he immediately pardoned Caractacus, and ordered him and his family to be set at liberty.

The Britons, though conquered, still panted after their freedom, and this spirit was not a little heightened by the insolence and oppression of the Roman soldiers; their yoke became every day more intolerable, and at last kindled those discontents which shortly after broke out into an open flame.

Practagus, king of the Iceni, at his death had bequeathed half of his dominions to Nero, hoping by the sacrifice of a part to secure the remainder to his daughters; but the Roman procurator immediately took possession of the whole; and when Boadicea, the widow of the deceased monarch, attempted to remonstrate, he ordered her to be cruelly scourged like a slave, and infamously ill-treated her daughters. The Iceni quickly flew to arms, and were immediately followed by all the other states: Boadicea, a woman of masculine courage, was appointed to head the common forces. She attacked the Roman colonies with great fury, and after cutting to pieces the whole infantry of the ninth legion, marched to London, which was already a flourishing city. The Romans abandoning it at their approach, it was taken and pillaged by the Britons, who massacred the Romans and their allies, without distinction of age or sex, to the number of 70,000. Flushed with success, they boldly attacked the Roman intrenchments; the battle was obstinate and bloody; Boadicea herself appeared in her chariot, with her two daughters, and harangued her army with undaunted firmness; but the undisciplined and fiery bravery of the troops was unable to withstand the cool intrepidity of the Romans; they were entirely routed, and the victors granting no quarter, 80,000 were left dead on the field of battle: Boadicea, resolving not to survive, first killed her daughters, and then poisoned herself. (A.D. 61.)

By this signal overthrow, the Britons who had been subdued were prevented from forming any more revolts, and those who had not yet submitted were afraid to make inroads into the conquered countries. The Romans, however, were not firmly established in the island till the time of Julius Agricola, (A. D. 78,) who not only subdued the seventeen nations of the Britons, but car-

ried the Roman arms almost to the extremity of Scotland, sending a fleet round the island, which discovered the Orcades or Orkney isles, unknown till then by the rest of the world. In fine, he governed with such mildness and wisdom during the reigns of Vespasian, Titus, and Domitian, that the Britons began to prefer a life of peace and security to that rude independence which they had formerly enjoyed. For several years after the time of Agricola, little mention is made of the affairs of the Britons, who appear to have enjoyed a profound peace. In the year 121, Adrian, in order to stop the incursions of the North Britons, built an immense wall of wood and earth, extending eighty miles in length, from the river Edin, in Cumberland, to the Tyne, in Northumberland. This wall proving insufficient to stop the incursions of the Caledonians, was afterwards rebuilt in a more solid manner by Severus, and its remains are still viewed by the antiquarian with delight and astonishment. (A.D. 211.)

Thus, after two-and-forty years' struggle of an uncivilized and disunited people, against the most powerful nation in the universe, the greater part of Britain became a province of the Roman empire in the fourth year of Domitian, one hundred and thirty-eight years after the first entrance of Julius Cæsar, and the eighty-fourth year of the Christian era. During three hundred years from this period, the Romans drew great riches from the country, and levied heavy tributes upon the inhabitants; but at the same time they introduced humanity and civilization, which daily made way and fitted the Britons for the light of the Gospel. At length Rome, the mistress of so many nations, began to sink under the weight of her own grandeur, and mankind, as if by general consent, rose up to vindicate their natural freedom. They were obliged, therefore, to withdraw their troops from this island to defend themselves at home, carrying with them to Gaul all the British youth capable of bearing arms.

The Scots and Picts, taking advantage of their absence, made incursions into the northern parts, and filled the country with slaughter and consternation. Vortigern, king of the Danmonii, a haughty and insolent prince, who possessed neither wisdom in council nor

experience in war, governed the country. (A. D. 449.) By his advice they agreed to call in the Saxons, a powerful nation of Northern Germany, to their assistance. The Saxons, who were then masters of what is now called the English Channel, readily accepted the invitation, and sent over Hengist and Horsa, two brothers, who, with their followers, soon checked the progress of the Scots and Picts, and had the Isle of Thanet assigned for their abode. Finding the lands of Britain so fertile, they began to meditate the conquest of the island; and fresh supplies continually arriving, they at last drove the Britons into Wales, where their language and descendants still remain.

CHAPTER II.

RELIGION OF THE BRITONS.

THE religion of the Pagan Britons was superstitious and horrible. They proceeded so far as to offer human bodies in sacrifice. Their priests, called Druids, enjoyed the highest honours and privileges; so great was the veneration in which they were held, that, as Pliny informs us, "When two hostile armies, inflamed by warlike rage, with swords drawn and spears extended, were on the point of engaging in battle, at their intervention they sheathed their swords and became calm and peaceful."

Among these Druids was one who had supreme authority over the rest, and presided at the general assembly, which was held once a year in Gaul. They were exempted from all military duties, imposts, and taxes; which privileges caused many to become their disciples. These disciples, who were principally of the best families, were taught a great number of verses by heart, not being allowed to commit their learning to writing. They taught the immortality and transmigration of the soul; the plurality of gods, and the necessity of sacrifices to them, who they believed had the government of the world, and the direction of future events. They also made discourses to their scholars con-

cerning the heavenly bodies, their motions and magnitudes. This gave rise to astrology, augury, divination, and a multitude of abominable rites and ceremonies. One of the absurd articles of the Druidical creed was, that to build temples to the gods or to worship them within walls and under roofs was unlawful; all their places of worship, were, therefore, in the open air, and in groves. In the centre of the grove was a circular space, enclosed with one or two rows of large stones, set perpendicularly in the earth, of which some vestiges remain to this day. Druidism long survived, although in obscurity, the imperial edicts levelled against it. In Ireland particularly, where the Roman arms had not penetrated, it continued until nearly the middle of the fifth century, when it fell before the energy of the great St. Patrick. But even in Britain the practice of the Druidical worship appears to have subsisted after the Druids as an order had ceased to exist. The annals of the sixth, seventh, and eighth centuries contain numerous edicts against the worship of the sun, moon, mountains, &c. There is even a law of Canute in the eleventh century to the same effect, nor have some of the practices yet altogether ceased to be remembered, witness the bonfires of May-day and Midsummer, the virtues attributed to the mistletoe, and various other customs in the country parts and villages of England, Scotland, and Ireland.

History is silent as to the exact time of the introduction of Christianity into this island; yet it is highly probable, from the concurring testimony of several writers, that it was favoured with the rays of the Gospel before the end of the first century. Eusebius, the pious and learned bishop of Cæsarea, who flourished at the beginning of the fourth century, and was highly favoured by Constantine the Great, positively asserts, that the Christian religion was first preached in the south of Britain by the apostles, or their immediate disciples; and it is reasonable to suppose that the successes of the Romans, which, by Divine appointment, were the means of propagating the true religion, paved the way to such an event in Britain. Many also of the soldiers and officers in the Roman army were Christians; and as their legions were repeatedly sent over to

Britain, Christianity doubtlessly was embraced by some portion of the natives.

Be this as it may, it appears certain that Lucius, surnamed Pius, the son of Coilus, who reigned during the time of the emperor Trajan and his successor Adrian, in the second century, by conversing with some Christians who frequented his court, became so convinced of the truths of their religion, as to send two Britons to Pope Eleutherius, to request that he and his subjects might be made Christians. Tryatius and Damianus, two pious and learned Romans, immediately repaired to the royal palace, where they instructed and solemnly baptized the king and queen. The nobility, the Druids, and people, eager to follow the example of a king they revered, flocked in crowds to the holy men; their idols were thrown down, their altars overturned, and their temples consecrated to the God of the Christians; and Britain had thus the honour of having the first European king who professed the Catholic faith.

After the suppression of the revolt of Boadicea, Britain enjoyed for many years great tranquillity, and presented a desirable asylum to those Christians who were cruelly persecuted in other places, particularly at Rome, the greater part of which city having been reduced to ashes, Nero, that cruel tyrant and persecutor of the church, in order to divert the suspicion of his having been the incendiary, laid the blame upon the Christians, and on that false pretence put some of them to the most cruel deaths. From these dreadful sufferings great multitudes fled to other countries, and particularly to this island, as to a place of greater safety. The persecution of Dioclesian, (A. D. 303,) however, spread even to Britain, where many bravely withstood the fury of their tormentors, and merited the glorious title of martyrs; amongst whom may be mentioned St. Alban, the protomartyr of Britain, with Julius and Aaron, citizens of Caerleon.

Persecution was not, however, the only obstacle raised by the enemy of mankind to obstruct the propagation of the Gospel. Pelagius, a native of this island, a monk, and afterwards abbot of Bangor in Wales, promulgated opinions contrary to the doctrine of the

church, which, though they could not pervert the faith of the people, confounded by their sophistry the simplicity of their pastors, unaccustomed as they were to the subtleties of controversy.

To put a stop to the progress of error, and support the doctrine of the church, St. Germanus of Auxerre, with the concurrence of Pope Celestine, twice visited Britain; the first time with St. Lupus of Troyes, (A. D. 429,) and again with St. Severus of Treves. (A. D. 446.) They met the disciples of Pelagius in the synod of Verulam, and after many arguments converted them to the true faith. But now arose a more formidable enemy; the Saxons invaded the island, and after a dreadful struggle, the religion and government of the Britons sank under their powerful and persevering efforts.

CHAPTER III.

REMARKABLE AND LEARNED MEN.—LAWS, GOVERNMENT, ETC., OF THE BRITONS.

Of the early British and Irish writers, some of whose works still remain, we have already made mention of the arch-heretic Pelagius, who lived in the fourth century; to the next century belongs St. Patrick, the great apostle of Ireland. St. Patrick was born in a village called Bonover Taberniae, now Kill-patrick, near the mouth of the Clyde, in Scotland. (A. D. 387.) In his Confessions he calls himself both a Briton and a Roman, or of a mixed extraction, and says his father was of a good family, and named Calphurnius, who, not long after the birth of his son, left Britain and went to Gaul. His mother, Conchessa, is said by some to have been niece to St. Martin of Tours. In his sixteenth year he was taken prisoner, with many of his father's vassals and slaves, by some Irish invaders, and carried by them to Ireland, where he was sold to a man named Milcho, whose flocks he attended. Some time after, he left his master, and repairing to the sea-shore, was taken on board a vessel and landed on the coast of Scot-

land. Subsequently he was again made captive, but soon recovered his liberty. After remaining a short time with his friends, he repaired to the celebrated monastery of St. Martin, near Tours; here it is said by some he received holy orders, but it would appear from his Confessions that he was ordained priest and consecrated bishop in his own country. After resisting the attempts of his friends to detain him by representing the dangers to which he would expose himself, and being determined to suffer all things for the accomplishment of his holy designs, he passed over to Ireland to preach the gospel, where the worship of idols still generally reigned. (A. D. 424.) For this purpose he travelled over the whole island, and such was the fervour and unction with which he spoke, that an infinite number were converted and baptized. St. Patrick fixed his metropolitan see at Armagh, where he founded a monastery. He also founded a monastery called Lubtul Padraig, where he died in the year 465; his body was found there in 1185, and translated to another part of the same church.

Secundinus was the friend and fellow-labourer of St. Patrick, and wrote a Latin poem in praise of the Saint.

St. Gildas the Wise, as he is styled, our earliest historian, was a son of Caro, prince of Strathclyde, in the capital of which kingdom, now Dunbarton, he was born. (A. D. 494.) In his youth, it is said he went over to Ireland to study in the schools of that country. After spending the greater part of his life in his own country, he retired to Armorica. (A. D. 570.) He is said to lie buried in the Cathedral of Vannes. He is the author of a "history of the Britons," and an "epistle to the tyrants of Britain," containing vehement invectives against his countrymen, which it appears they but too well merited.

The immediate successor of St. Gildas among our historians is St. Ninian, the apostle of the southern Picts. He was the son of a prince of the Cumbrian Britons, who inhabited Cumberland and Galloway. He built a church of stone at Withern in Galloway, after his return from Rome, whither he had gone to study the sacred sciences. He converted the Cumbrians and the inhabitants of all the provinces of the southern

Picts. The church of Withern became a seminary of apostolic and learned men, and here St. Ninian fixed his episcopal see. He died in September, 532.

The civil government of the Britons was, like that of the Gauls, composed of several nations, under as many petty princes. Whether these principalities descended by succession or election is uncertain: but upon all great and imminent dangers, a chief was usually chosen by common consent, as was Cassibelanus against the Romans. In common cases, each principality owed allegiance to its particular prince alone.

As agriculture and commerce were but very imperfectly known, and extensive tracts were covered with woods and marshes at the time of the Roman invasion, it is probable that the country was not very populous. If we allow about 800,000 persons of both sexes, it will most likely be pretty near the truth.

The power of the British chieftains was circumscribed within very narrow bounds. A fierce and martial people, with Druids who had so much influence, were not likely to submit to the will of the sovereign as a supreme law. "None," says Tacitus, speaking of the Britons "can inflict stripes or correction but their priests; and they do it, not at the command of their general, but in obedience to their gods, who they pretend are peculiarly with their armies in war." Their laws were couched in verse. Murderers and robbers were burnt to death. Those who betrayed or deserted the cause of their country, were hanged on trees; and cowards, sluggards, and habitual drunkards, were suffocated in mires and bogs. Flocks and herds were the most valuable possessions of almost all nations, in the earlier period of their history. A high price was therefore set, not only upon the life, but even the limbs of each useful animal. By the ancient laws of Wales, it was forbidden under a penalty to throw a stone at an ox in the plough, to tie the yoke too tightly about his neck, or urge him to too great an effort in drawing. By the laws of succession, a man's lands, at his death, were equally divided among all his sons, and when any dispute arose, it was determined by the Druids. The youngest, it appears, was more favoured than the eldest, or any of his brothers. "When the

brothers have divided their father's estate, the youngest shall have the best house, with the implements of husbandry, his father's axe, his kettle and knife." These three last things the father cannot take away by gift, nor leave by his will, to any but his youngest son: and if they are pledged, they shall be redeemed. To account for this law is not difficult; the elder brothers of a family were supposed to have left their father's house before his death, and to have obtained houses of their own; but the youngest was considered, by reason of his age, more helpless, or not so well provided.

After the subjugation of Britain by the Romans, the five provinces into which they divided it had each its particular governor, called "President," who resided within the province.

These governor had the command of the armies, and the collecting of the revenues or tribute which the Romans imposed upon the conquered people, in one of two modes; either they fixed an annual tribute, or they took the lands, colonizing them from Rome, or restored them upon condition of receiving a revenue. Those treated in the former manner were called "Tributarii;" those in the latter "Vectigales." The Vectigales paid for their arable land a tax called "Decumæ;" for their pasture land a tax called "Scriptura;" and for their ports a tax called "Portorium."

CHAPTER IV.

COMMERCE, SHIPPING, ARTS, AGRICULTURE.

For a considerable period before the invasion of the island by Julius Cæsar, the commerce of Britain was very flourishing, particularly among the southern and eastern tribes, whose vicinity to the coast of Gaul had tempted the researches and enterprise of that nation, and the Phœnicians of Cadiz and Carthage.

The notice we have of the Phœnician trade with Britain, professing to be derived from the oldest sources, is that contained in the narrative of the voyage of Himilco, the Carthaginian navigator, given by Festus

Avienus. This voyage is supposed to have been made 1,000 years before the Christian era. Subsequently the Romans succeeded in discovering these islands and getting a part of the commerce into their hands, although it was probably entirely confined to their colonial settlements in the south-west of Gaul, whence the goods were sent overland to the Gulf of Lyons, and this is nearly all that is known of the commerce of Britain with other parts of the world before it became a province of the Roman empire.

Tin, a metal held in high estimation in all parts of the world, on account of its various uses, and the facility with which it was manufactured, was a considerable article of exportation. Iron was in small quantities before the time of the Romans; but after their invasion this most useful metal became very plentiful, and made a large part of the British exports. Gems and pearls, which were much esteemed by the Romans, were also exported from Britain; and though they were probably inferior to those of India, yet some were very remarkable for their size and beauty. Cattle, which abounded in the island, also furnished several articles of exportation. British horses were so beautiful, and so admirably trained, that they were much valued by the Romans; as were also the dogs, which are thus described by Ossian:

> "There is a kind of dogs of mighty fame
> In hunting, worthy of a fairer name,
> By painted Britons, brave in war they're bred,
> Are beagles called, and to the chase are led."

The goods imported, according to Strabo, were ivory, bridles, gold chains, amber, and drinking-glasses; but after the Roman conquest, wines, spices, furniture, clothing, &c., became articles of importation. In the time of Nero, when London was already become a great city, abounding in merchants and merchandise, it of course also abounded in shipping. In the year 359 no fewer than eight hundred ships were employed in the exportation of corn alone; the whole number, therefore, in the British trade must have been very great. By the departure of the Romans, the British suffered as much in their maritime affairs as in any other. The Roman fleets and garrisons being with-

drawn, the British ships became an easy prey to the Frank and Saxon pirates, and were not even secure in their harbours, which obliged many of the merchants to retire with their effects into the interior provinces of the empire.

There is every reason to believe, that some knowledge of the art of working in metals was possessed by the Britons before the Roman invasion; moulds for spear, arrow, and axe-heads, have been frequently found both in Britain and in Ireland. In 1735, a hundred axe-heads with several lumps of metal and a quantity of cinders were found on Easterly Moor, near York. Some of the British tools and weapons have been chemically analyzed, and found to contain one part of tin and six of copper.

Of handicrafts, they excelled in basket making or wicker work, which was used in the construction of their boats, and the gigantic idols, in which they burnt their victims at their religious festivals. Another kind of boats seems to have been made of a single tree; several of these have been discovered. In 1736, one, seven feet long, was dug up from a morass in Dumfries; the paddle was found near it. On draining Martine Muir, in Lancashire, eight canoes were found sunk at the bottom, each made of a single tree. In 1834, a boat of the same kind was found in a creek near the village of North Stoke, on the river Arun in Sussex. It measures in length thirty-six feet four inches, and is now in the British Museum. The British earthenware appears to have been very rudely formed and imperfectly baked, so as to crack by mere exposure to the weather. With respect to their currency, Cæsar distinctly says, they had no coined money, instead of which they used pieces of bronze or iron of a certain weight. After the Roman invasion, money was coined. Some of pure gold, stamped with figures of horses, oxen, hogs, and sheep, were dug up, about the middle of the last century, on the top of Cornbre Hill in Cornwall; a few had on one side a head, probably of some royal personage.

The northern Britons appear not to have sown their land, but followed the primitive callings of the hunter and herdsman, living upon the flesh and milk of

their flocks and herds. The agriculture of the Britons of the south-eastern coast was the same as that of the neighbouring Gauls. They understood the use of manures: they housed their corn in subterranean chambers, and beat it out as they wanted it. Some of these caves were discovered in 1829, at a farm called Garrones, nine miles east of Cork in Ireland. A considerable quantity of charcoal was found in them, and the fragments of a quern or hand-mill. More were subsequently found in other parts of the south of Ireland, as also in the Hebrides and in Cornwall. The pits near Crayford and Feversham in Kent, at Tilbury in Essex, and at Royston in Hertfordshire, are also supposed to have been used for the same purpose.

With regard to gardening, we have no mention of any fruits or vegetables cultivated before the time of the Romans. The houses of the Britons appear to have been miserable cabins, wattled and covered with straw, with a tapering roof, and without a chimney. They had nothing answering to our notion of a town. Strabo says, "The forests of the Britons are their cities, for when they have enclosed a very large circuit with felled trees, they build within it houses for themselves and their cattle." Wholly uncultivated as was the greater part of the country, it was most probably not unprovided with a few great highways, by which communication was maintained between one district and another. The old tradition is, that the southern part of the island in British times was crossed in various directions by four great highways, still to be, in part, traced, and known by the names of the Fosse, Watling-street, Ermine-street, and the Ichenild, but it must have been the Romans undoubtedly who formed these roads into those noble, and almost monumental works, which their remains still existing, declare them to have been. The Itinerary of Antonius enumerates fifteen routes in Britain, all of which were along regularly formed roads. In every instance the distances from station to station were marked in Roman miles, no doubt indicated by regularly placed stones, of which the famous London stone, still to be seen, leaning against the south wall of St. Swithin's Church, in Cannon-street, London, is supposed to have been the first.

CHAPTER V.

MANNERS, CUSTOMS, ETC.

The Britons were remarkable for the strength and size of their bodies. They excelled in running, swimming, wrestling, climbing, and all kinds of bodily exercises. Nature was no less liberal in the faculties of their minds; they were acute and ingenious; very capable of acquiring any art or science to which they applied. Julius Agricola loaded with praise the young men of Britain who studied the Roman learning, declaring that they excelled the youths of Gaul in genius. Valour was the most admired and popular virtue of the Britons. They were accustomed from their infancy to handle arms, and sing the warlike actions of their forefathers; nor were they less remarkable for their love of liberty. To this powerful passion their leaders addressed all their harangues; by this they were animated to so long and obstinate a resistance to their invading foes. The character given of them by Tacitus is probably very just, and certainly very honourable. The "Britons," says he, "are a people who pay their taxes, and obey the laws with pleasure, provided no arbitrary and illegal demands be made upon them: but these they cannot bear without the greatest impatience, for they are only reduced to the state of subjects, not of slaves." Hospitality was one of the most shining virtues of the ancient Britons; as soon as a stranger visited them, they gave him the warmest reception, and testified the sincerest joy at his arrival: as long as he stayed, his person was esteemed sacred and inviolable, the season was devoted to festivity, and every amusement in the power of his host was prepared to make him pass his time agreeably. Nor were they less remarkable for the warmth of their natural affections, their duty to their parents and superiors, and their inviolable attachment to their friends and families.

Their new-born infants were plunged into some lake or river, even in the coldest weather, to strengthen their constitutions and harden their bodies; every mo-

ther nursed her own offspring, without having the least idea that it was possible for any other to perform that parental office. It was to this continual exercise and perfect liberty, joined to the simplicity of their diet, that Cæsar ascribes the great strength of body and boldness of spirit to which the British youth attained.

As to their clothing, the upper garment was a mantle, at first formed of the skins of beasts, and afterwards of a square piece of cloth, sufficiently large to cover the whole body, fastened on the breast or shoulder by a clasp, or instead of that with a thorn or sharp-pointed piece of wood. Close trowsers, resembling pantaloons, were next introduced; then the tunic or vest, adjusted to the shape of the body, and without sleeves; they had no other shoes but a piece of a skin of a horse, cow, or some other animal, tied about their feet.

They took great care of their hair, which they considered as a principal ornament; but they shaved the beard, except the upper lip, the hair of which they allowed to grow to a very inconvenient length. At their entertainments they used little bread, but a great quantity of flesh, either boiled, broiled on the coals, or roasted on spits. Their drink at first was water, but they soon began to use the milk of animals. Before agriculture began to flonrish, mead was their only strong liquor, and was a favourite beverage; but, after the introduction of agriculture, ale or beer became the general drink: wine was little known before the Roman invasion. Breakfast and supper were their only meals; the guests sat in a circle upon the ground, with hay, grass, or the skin of some animal under them. Each guest took the meat set before him in his hands, and, tearing it with his teeth, fed upon it in the best manner he could. If any part could not be easily separated, a large knife lay in the middle, for the benefit of the company. Their dishes were either of wood, earthenware, or osiers, in the art of making which they excelled. Their drinking vessels were made of horn, but those of the Caledonians were mostly shells.

The manner of burying the dead was as follows: they opened a grave six or eight feet deep; in this they laid the body of the deceased, who, if a warrior, had his sword, his bow, and his arrows laid by his side. The

favourite dogs of the deceased were sometimes buried with him: the funeral song was then sung by a number of bards, to the music of their harps. To want this ceremony was considered the greatest disgrace and misfortune, as they believed that without it their bodies could enjoy no rest nor happiness in a future state. A more classical mode of burial was also frequently followed among the Britons. The body was consumed by fire, the ashes were carefully collected, enclosed in a linen sheet, and deposited in an urn. Many of the barrows on being opened are found to contain these urns.

Such are nearly all the facts that can be collected as to the private life and social habits of the Britons, while they remained an unconquered people. When the Romans took possession of the island, the inhabitants by degrees adopted the tastes, manners, and modes of life of their conquerors. The country assumed a new aspect; forests were opened and roads constructed in every direction; houses of brick or stone gradually superseded those of mud or timber; superior modes of agriculture were introduced, and the natives, thus taught the fertility of their soil, forsook a precarious mode of subsistence for the settled life of the husbandman.

BOOK II.

CHAPTER I.

MILITARY HISTORY OF THE SAXONS.

MANKIND, in the possession of present enjoyment, are but too apt to overlook the prospect of future evil. The Britons did not foresee that their deliverers were to be their conquerors. The Saxons, however, after subduing the Scots and Picts, soon pulled off the mask. They complained that their subsidies were ill paid, and demanded larger supplies of corn and other provisions

threatening to lay waste the country, if their demands were not granted. The Britons, far from complying, desired them, since their numbers exceeded what they were able to maintain, to return home. Upon this the Saxons concluded a peace with the Scots and Picts, and turning all their strength against the Britons, overran the whole country; pillaging, burning, and massacreing the unhappy Britons, without distinction of age or sex.

Vortigern, far from being reclaimed by these misfortunes, irritated his subjects by his crimes and his partiality for the Saxons, the daughter of whose chief he had espoused. He was deposed, and his son Vortimer placed upon the throne. Vortimer defeated the Saxons in several bloody battles, and during his reign Hengist wandered an adventurer on the coast of the British seas; but Vortimer dying, the father again took possession of the crown, and continuing the war against the Saxons, was in the end overthrown, and obliged to retire from Kent to London, about the year 458; from which time may be dated the first Saxon kingdom in Britain, viz. that of Kent.

New adventurers continued to flock over under the names of Saxons, Angles, and Jutes. In 477, a band of these pirates, under the command of Œla, landed in the isle of Selsea, the ancient territory of the Regni; and after an obstinate resistance defeated the Britons, who retreated to the great forest of Andredswold, whence they were at last driven, and obliged to retire upon the fortress of Anderid, then deemed impregnable. The Saxons laid siege to the city, which, after a most obstinate defence, was taken, reduced to ashes, and the inhabitants put to the sword. By this conquest Œla secured his former acquisitions, and became the founder of the kingdom of Sussex, or South Saxons, the second Saxon kingdom, in the year 490.

A few years after, a very powerful and active chieftain, named Cerdic, landed with his son Cenric at Yarmouth: and though opposed with great intrepidity by the Britons, made good his settlement, and established the kingdom of Wessex about the year 496. He was soon followed by Porta, another Saxon leader, with his two sons Bleda and Mazla, who landed at Ports-

mouth, so called from his name. Nazalead, king of the South Britons, styled by Henry of Huntingdon the greatest of all the British kings, assembling his troops, gave battle to Cerdic, and totally routed his right wing; but pursuing the enemy too eagerly, Cerdic fell on his rear, and at last defeated him, killing 5,000 of his men; the king himself being left dead on the field of battle. An interregnum of six years ensued; after which the Welsh annals place the beginning of the reign of king Arthur, the most renowned of our ancient princes.

The history of this prince is so much obscured by fable, as to make some conclude that no such person existed; but a decisive proof of the contrary is, the discovery of his tomb in Glastonbury, where his coffin was found in the reign of Henry II. This renowned prince is said to have defeated the Saxons in twelve pitched battles: the last was fought on Badon Hill, supposed to be Bansdown, near Bath; in which the Saxons received so terrible an overthrow, as to give the Britons no further molestation in those parts for many years. In 542 Arthur was mortally wounded, fighting against his treacherous nephew Mordred, whom he killed on the spot; five years after, the Saxon kingdom of Northumberland was erected.

Whilst Cerdic was combating the southern Britons, several tribes, with Erkenwin at their head, sailed up the mouth of the Thames, and disembarking on the left bank of that river, founded the kingdom of Essex, or of the East Angles. Fresh swarms continued to arrive, and landing to the north of their countrymen, the East Angles, under the command of Uffa, became very powerful.

But the great body of the Angles had penetrated more towards the north, where they succeeded in driving the Britons from the coast; and sending colonies across the Humber, pushed on their conquests even to the centre of the island. They were called Mercians; and by some Middle Angles, from their central position.

The Britons were now confined within very narrow bounds; but before they gave up the best part of their country, they resolved once more to try the fate of battle. The action was fought at Woden's Heath, in

Wiltshire, near the ditch called Warsdyke, which runs through the midst of the county. The battle was obstinate and bloody, and the Saxons, in the end, were obliged to flee. This victory, however, proved of small service to the Britons; who, being greatly inferior in number, were at last obliged to take refuge among the craggy and mountainous places in the west of the island; while others crossing the ocean, landed on the western extremity of Armorica, and gave to the part thus conquered the name of their native country. It is still known by the name of Bretagne.

Thus, after a brave and obstinate resistance, the Saxons erected seven independent kingdoms, commonly called the Heptarchy. These seven kingdoms shortly after merged into three, for the weak states of Kent, Sussex, Essex, and East Anglia, were soon reduced to a state of vassalage, by one or other of their more powerful neighbours of Northumbria, Mercia, and Wessex, which in their turn were made to flow into one channel, under Egbert, grand nephew of Ina, one of the successors of Cerdic.

To return to the somewhat perplexing account of the Heptarchy, it is supposed that over these separate states there was always a lord paramount, called Britwalda; of these, Ella, founder of the kingdom of the South Saxons, was the first Britwalda. After a long vacancy, Ceawlin, king of Wessex, about the year 568, stepped into the dignity, which was however contested with him by Ethelbert, king of Kent, who after the death of Ceawlin became third Britwalda.

The fourth Britwalda was Redwald, king of East Anglia. He engaged in a war with Edilfrid, king of Northumbria, who is said to have destroyed more Britons than all the other Saxon kings. Victory declared for the Britwalda. Edilfrid was slain.

About 621, Edwin, the fifth Britwalda, succeeded both to the dignity of Redwald, and the kingdom of Edilfrid, and so successful was he in his wars, that he raised Northumbria to a superiority over all the Saxon kingdoms; thus transferring the ascendancy from the South to the North. He also added the Isles of Man and Anglesea to his Northumbrian dominions, and according to some accounts maintained a supremacy over

the Scots and Picts. He did not, however, hold this supremacy long, for Penda, the pagan prince of Mercia, rebelled against him, and joining Cadwallader, king of Wales, a great battle was fought, in which Edwin was defeated and slain. Penda then marched into Norfolk against the East Angles, of which kingdom Sigebert had abdicated the throne in favour of his cousin Egeric, and had retired into a monastery; but at the approach of the pagan host, the old soldier left his retirement, and directed the movement of the army with a white wand, his religious scruples not permitting him to resume the sword and battle-axe. Penda was as successful here as he had been against the Northumbrians, and both Sigebert and Egeric fell in battle.

In the year 634, Oswald, nephew of Edwin, raised his banner in Northumberland, where Cadwallader had committed great cruelties. He and his Welch were surprised near Hexham, and totally defeated by inferior numbers. Oswald then regained all that Edwin had lost, and was soon after acknowledged Britwalda. In 642 Oswald was slain in battle by the fierce and still unconverted Penda, but the Northumbrians once more rallied round the family of their beloved Edwin, and on the retreat of Penda from the well-defended rock of Bamborough, Oswy, brother of Oswald, ascended the throne.

Once more Penda advanced against the Northumbrians, with an army swelled by the forces of thirty vassal chiefs, and the hardest battle that had been fought for many years took place near York. Here at last this scourge of the Christian Saxons perished, and with him thirty of his chief captains. Oswy then assumed the rank of Britwalda. About the year 651, Northumbria was redivided into its two ancient states, Oswy retaining Bernicia, and Odelwald reigning in Deira. This disseverance was a fatal blow, from which Northumbria never recovered. Oswy was succeeded by his son Egfrid, who, after having defeated the Picts, invaded Mercia; but peace was restored by the intervention of a holy servant of the church. In 685 Egfrid was slain fighting against the Pictish king, Brude, and his kingdom became a scene of anarchy and misery.

In Mercia, the old rival of Northumbria, Ethelbald,

in 737, reigned with a paramount authority, after having reduced the kingdom of Wessex to a state of vassalage; but five years after the vassal state reasserted its independence, and in a great battle fought at Burford, in Oxfordshire, victory declared for the Golden Dragon, the standard of Wessex.

Between the years 758 and 794, the superiority of Mercia was successfully reasserted by King Offa, who, after subduing part of Sussex and Kent, took all that part of Wessex that lay on the left of the Thames, and planted strong colonies between the Wye and the Severn. To secure his conquest, he caused a ditch and rampart to be drawn all along the frontier of Wales, beginning near the mouth of the Dee, and ending on the Severn near Bristol. Extensive remains of this work are still visible, and known by the name of Offa's Dyke. According to some of the old writers, the last warlike exploit of Offa was the defeat of a body of Danish invaders. On the death of Offa in 795, the great power of Mercia began rapidly to decline; and as Northumbria continued in a hopeless condition, Wessex soon had the field to herself.

At the time of Offa's death, the throne of Wessex was occupied by Brithric, although Egbert, the son of Alchmund, had a better title, but having fewer partisans, after a short and unsuccessful struggle, he fled to the court of Offa the Mercian. Brithric then sent ambassadors into Mercia to demand the hand of Eadburgha, one of Offa's daughters, and the head of Egbert. Offa gave his daughter, but refused the second request. Egbert, however, left Mercia and repaired to the court of Charlemagne, who received him hospitably and employed him in his armies. During a residence of fourteen or fifteen years, chiefly under Charlemagne, whose subjects were at that time much more polished than the Saxons, he acquired great knowledge and many accomplishments, both as a soldier and a statesman. In the mean time, Eadburgha, wife of Brithric, proved herself to be a woman of the most depraved character. Whenever offended or thwarted, she endeavoured to arm the king against the party, and if not successful in her application, she became the executioner of her own vengeance. She had prepared a cup of poison for

a young nobleman; the king's favourite; by others it is said to have been prepared expressly for the king; be this as it may, the king and many of his household drank of it, and were all poisoned, and died a horrid death. The crime was discovered, and the queen degraded and expelled. She also took refuge with Charlemagne, who assigned her a residence in a convent; but here she conducted herself so viciously, that she was turned out of this place of shelter. Some years after her expulsion, a woman, of foreign mien and faded beauty, was seen begging alms in the streets of Pavia in Italy; it was Eadburgha, the widow of the king of the West Saxons, the daughter of Offa, monarch of all England south of the Humber. It is believed she ended her days at Pavia. As soon as Egbert learned the death of Brithric, he returned to Wessex, where he was received with open arms.

800.—Egbert. In the beginning of his reign, he wisely employed himself in gaining the affections of his people, and then turned his arms against the Britons, the Mercians, the Cantii, the South and East Saxons, and lastly, the Northumbrians, whom he conquered one after the other, and thus put an end to the Saxon heptarchy. He was then solemnly crowned king of all Britain, and by proclamation he commanded the whole heptarchy to be called England. Scarcely, however, was he settled on his united throne, when he and his subjects became alarmed at the approach of a new and unexpected enemy, and the island was once more exposed to fresh invasions.

The Danes, a tribe of those nations who had conquered the countries bordering on the Baltic, began to infest the western coasts of Europe, and filled all places wherever they went with slaughter and desolation. Their first appearance in England was during the reign of Brithric; but it was not till about five years after the accession of Egbert, that their invasion became truly formidable. After various descents and depredations, they were totally routed in a pitched battle, by Egbert, at Hensdown Hill, near Kellington. This victory secured the kingdom for some time; but the death of Egbert emboldened the enemy to renew their devastations.

836.—Ethelwulf succeeded his father Egbert on the throne. This pious prince had been educated by St. Swithin, bishop of Winchester; and, more desirous of a celestial than an earthly crown, he divided the kingdom with his brother Athelstan. His pacific disposition emboldened the Danes to renew their invasions; but Ethelwulf, putting his confidence in the God of battle, engaged the enemy at Oakley in Surrey, and, after a bloody combat, totally defeated them; whilst his brother Athelstan, encountering them at Sandwich, gained a complete victory, taking also many of their ships. Being now left in some repose, he, with his youngest son Alfred, made a pilgrimage to Rome, where he remained a year, during which time he presented many valuable gifts to the Holy See, and founded a school for the English. Not long after he died, and was buried in the cathedral of Winchester in 857, after a reign of about twenty-two years, leaving the kingdom between his sons Ethelbald and Ethelbert.

857.—Ethelbald, in the beginning of his reign, made himself odious by his vices. He incestuously married his step-mother Judith, contrary to the laws of God and man; but by the admonitions and prayers of St. Swithin he soon repented of his crime, put away his unlawful wife, and dying shortly after, was buried at Sherburne. He reigned about three years.

860.—Ethelbert then became sole monarch of England; and after a pious reign of about five years, during which the kingdom was much harassed by the Danes, he died, sincerely lamented by his subjects, and was interred with great pomp in the cathedral of Sherburne.

865.—Ethelbert was succeeded by his brother Ethelred. His reign was one continued conflict with the Danes. These barbarians, after plundering and burning the famous abbeys of Lindisfarne and Croyland, in Lincolnshire massacred the monks; and, passing on to those of Medeshamstede and the Isle of Ely, which they also burnt, they inflicted on the abbess and nuns of the latter indignities worse than death, and then put them to the sword, or threw them into the flames. Of the nuns of Coldingham, a story is related by Matthew of Westminster, which, though not absolutely

certain, is yet highly probable. Ebba, the abbess, at the approach of the Danes, alarmed for the honour of her trembling sisters, exhorted them to prefer the purity of their bodies to their beauty; and, at that instant, drawing a knife from her bosom, inflicted a ghastly wound on her face. The nuns immediately followed her example, and the Danes, filled with horror and rage at the spectacle, consumed them in the flames of their monastery. Advancing to Thetford, they were opposed by St. Edmund, a tributary king of the East Angles, who, with a small body of troops, discomfited them; but fresh numbers arriving, Edmund, unwilling to sacrifice any lives in a fruitless opposition, disbanded his army, and retired into Suffolk; here being overtaken, he was bound and conducted to the tent of the general. Proposals were made to him inconsistent with his religion, which he immediately rejected: upon his refusal he was beaten with cudgels, tied to a tree, and torn with whips; after which they shot at him as a mark, and finally beheaded him.

Etheldred, with his brother Alfred, fought many bloody though indecisive battles with the Danes; in one of these the king received a wound which caused his death; though some historians affirm that he died of the plague, leaving to his brother Alfred a kingdom reduced to the brink of ruin.

871.—We now come to the reign of a prince whose life deserves a somewhat more lengthened detail than that of any of his predecessors. Alfred was the fourth son of Ethelwulf and of Osburga, the daughter of Oslac. He was born at Wantage, in 849, and was remarkable, when a child, for his beauty, vivacity, and playfulness, which greatly endeared him to his parents and all around him. During the reigns of his brothers, Alfred possessed the government of a district, and served under them in their battles with the Danes. He had scarcely mounted the throne, when he was obliged to give battle to the Danes at Wilton, where, with a very inferior army, he routed them; but perceiving the small number of their pursuers, they rallied, and after a severe struggle, remained masters of the field. Alfred no ways dispirited, prepared to renew the attack; the enemy, however, dreading his warlike ge-

nius, preferred peace, and promised to quit England. But neither treaties nor vows could bind them, and they only removed to another part, pillaging and destroying every thing. New swarms continuing to arrive, Alfred found it impossible to make head against them, and therefore for a time gave up the contest, and withdrew secretly to a retreat in the county of Somerset. Here he supported with resignation and piety his humble lot, in hopes of better times. It is said, that one day, musing on the miseries of his country, he happened to let some cakes burn, which the herdsman's wife, with whom he lodged, had entrusted to his care. She reproached him severely; telling him he was more ready to eat than work for his bread.

During his abode in this wretched situation, Alfred had observed at some distance a small island, situated in a morass, formed by the confluence of the Parrett and the Thone, and almost inaccessible. In this place he built a fort, to which, with the assistance of some noblemen and others still attached to his fortune, he removed his wife and family, and from hence he made frequent sallies, and returned with the spoils of the enemy. Notwithstanding, the boldness of these sudden attacks, and their success, he, with his family and followers, were often reduced to terrible privation for want of necessaries, of which the following story, related by most of the ancient authorities, is not only an elucidation, but proves the noble disposition of Alfred. In the winter, which was uncommonly severe, while his people were gone to procure food, a poor man knocked at the gate, and begged for something to eat. The king, calling Elswitha, requested her to give him part of what might be remaining in the house; the queen, finding only a loaf, brought it to Alfred, to shew him the scantiness of their store. The king immediately shared it with the beggar, saying to the queen, "He who could feed five thousand with five loaves and two fishes, will know, in his good time, how to provide for us:" nor was this charitable deed long without its recompense, for the servants returned with so great a booty, as prevented any further inconvenience during the rest of their seclusion.

Meanwhile the Danes carried terror over the whole

country, ravaging and destroying without opposition. The Earl of Devonshire, who had, with a few followers, thrown himself into the castle of Kenwith, finding himself unable to sustain a siege, was resolved, with his followers, to cut his way through the Danes, sword in hand. This he not only accomplished, but also routed them with great slaughter, killing their general, Ubba. This victory revived the courage of the Saxons; and Alfred, quitting his retreat, and taking advantage of their disposition, animated them to a vigorous exertion of their superiority. Wishing, however, to be fully instructed in the forces and position of the enemy, and knowing no one in whom he could confide, he undertook this dangerous attempt himself. In the dress of a minstrel, with a harp in his hand, he entered the Danish camp, and was so much admired for his performance on that instrument, that he was taken into the presence of their general, with whom he remained some days. Here he had an opportunity of remarking the supine security of the Danes, and their contempt of the Saxons. Then returning to his followers, he appointed them to meet him in the forest of Selwood; a summons which they joyfully obeyed. It was against the most unguarded quarter of the Danes he made his attack, whilst they, surprised to behold an enemy whom they had considered as totally subdued, made but a faint resistance, and were slaughtered in immense numbers. The remainder fled to one of their fortified castles, where Alfred besieging them, they were obliged to sue for peace, which was granted on the following terms:—that their king Gothrun should embrace Christianity; that they should for ever quit his dominions, and give up a certain number of hostages, as a security for the due performance of the treaty. A short time after, Gothrun and many of his officers were baptized, and he then returned to East Anglia, where, notwithstanding many efforts were made by some of his countrymen to induce him to break the treaty, he remained faithful to his engagements, and contributed not a little to repel the ravages of subsequent marauders.

Alfred, now at peace, set himself to repair the damages occasioned by the war. His first attention was to establish a navy. He had himself some mechanical

skill, and he caused vessels to be built much superior in every thing to those of his enemies, adapted to the service for which he destined them, and constructed after a plan of his own invention, so that he may be regarded as the founder of the naval glories of his country. At length, after a glorious reign of twenty-nine years and a half, he died on the 25th of October, 900, in the fifty-first year of his age. He fought no fewer than fifty-six battles with the Danes.

900.—EDWARD, his second son, succeeded him on the throne. During the whole of his reign there were but few intervals free from insurrections and battles with the Northumbrians. He gained many victories over them, and was greatly assisted in his councils by his sister Ethelfleda, widow of Ethelbert, earl of Mercia, who, after her husband's death, retained the government of that province. By their united efforts, Edward acquired more solid power than had ever been possessed by any of his predecessors. The country from Northumbria to the Channel owned his sway; the kings of the Scots and princes of Wales paid him tribute; and the other nations eagerly solicited his friendship. He did not long, however, enjoy his power: he died at Farringdon in Berkshire, 924, and was buried near his father at Winchester.

924.—ATHELSTAN.—To him succeeded Athelstan, whose reputed illegitimacy did not prevent his accession to the throne; though not without opposition from Alfred, a nobleman of his kindred, who conspired with his accomplices to seize him in the city of Winchester, and to put out his eyes. The plot was discovered; but Alfred, denying the charge, was sent to Rome to clear himself before the Pope, where, while taking the oath before the altar of St. Peter, he fell down in a fit, and being carried to the English school, he died three days afterwards.

Athelstan, having subdued the Northumbrians, made war upon Constantine, king of Scotland, who had assisted Godefrid, the Northumbrian king. This prince, with Anlaff of Ireland and Eugenius of Cumberland, invaded England by the Humber; but being met in Northumberland by Athelstan, a bloody battle ensued, in which, after prodigies of valour on both sides, Con-

stantine being killed, the Scots and their allies were put to flight, with dreadful slaughter. This victory added so much to the reputation of Athelstan, that all the princes of Christendom eagerly courted his alliance. He soon after invaded Wales, which he easily reduced; and ordering their petty kings to meet him at Hereford, he imposed a tribute on them of twenty pounds of gold, three hundred pounds of silver, 25,000 beeves, and as many hounds and hawks as he should demand. Thus dreaded at home and abroad, he lived in peace; and dying in November, 940, was buried at Malmsbury.

940.—EDMUND, surnamed "the Magnificent," his brother, succeeded him at the age of eighteen. In the second year of his reign he invaded Mercia, and freed that province from the authority of the Danes; from whom he also took Leicester, Lincoln, Nottingham, Stamford, and Derby. Peace, however, was concluded by the intervention of St. Otho, and St. Wasten, the archbishop; and Amloff the Dane became a Christian, king Edmund being his godfather. The virtues, abilities, wealth, and temperance of Edmund, promised him a long and happy reign; when on a certain day, as he was solemnizing a festival at Puckle church in Gloucestershire, he remarked Leolf, a notorious robber, whom he had banished, audaciously enter the hall, and seat himself among the guests. Enraged at his insolence, Edmund commanded him to leave the room; and on his refusing to obey, the king, who was naturally choleric, flew upon him and caught him by the hair. The villain, giving way to his rage, drew his dagger and stabbed the monarch to the heart, who fell on the bosom of his murderer. The assassin was instantly cut to pieces: a small compensation for the loss of a monarch beloved by his people, and meriting their esteem. He was buried at Glastonbury in 946, of which monastery St. Dunstan was abbot.

946.—EDRED.—The two sons of Edmund being too young to succeed him, his brother Edred was appointed king. His piety and bravery proved that he did not degenerate from his ancestors. In the first year of his reign he subdued the Northumbrians, who had again revolted. He was soon after seized with a languishing distemper; and being admonished by St

Dunstan of his approaching death, he received the intelligence with resignation; and after passing his time in acts of virtue and devotion, he departed this life on the feast of St. Clement, in the flower of his age, to the great grief of his subjects, after a reign of nine years.

955.—EDWY, surnamed "the Fair," the eldest son of Edmund, was now advanced to the throne, at the age of sixteen. His beauty, which was remarkable, exposed him to the arts and allurements of seduction. At his court was a female of very great attractions, and nearly allied to the monarch. This lady and her mother had so insinuated themselves into his affections, that for their company he neglected every duty of a monarch. Even at his coronation, the dinner was scarcely over, when he withdrew from the venerable assembly of his prelates and nobles, into the chamber of these women. This was highly resented by his lords, who deputed St. Dunstan and the Archbishop of Litchfield to seek him, and endeavour to bring him back to a sense of his duty. They accordingly entered the chamber, and finding the crown laid aside, and its wearer in the arms of these concubines, St. Dunstan severely rebuked the women, and gently reprehending the king, besought him not to put so great an affront upon the nobles; and notwithstanding his and their threats, he brought him back almost by force into the assembly. Being thus thwarted in their guilty passion, they embraced every opportunity to gratify their revenge. The property of St. Dunstan was seized by a body of armed men, sent by permission from the king, the saint expelled from his convent, and obliged to seek refuge in Flanders, while religion and the monasteries felt severely the effects of the king's aversion. At length sentence of separation was decreed in a full assembly of the prelates and nobles, at which Archbishop Otho presided, and Ethelgiva was banished to Ireland; whence presuming to return, she was taken by a party of soldiers, who cruelly cut her hamstrings; a punishment sometimes inflicted on those who dared to return from banishment. The vices and extravagances of Edwy augmenting daily the discontents of the people, the provinces to the north of the Humber transferred their allegiance to his bro-

ther Edgar. After an inglorious reign of nearly four years, Edwy died in 959, and was buried at Winchester.

959.—EDGAR.—The death of Edwy made way for his brother Edgar, who mounted the throne at the age of sixteen. His reign was a continual calm; so that he obtained the surname of "Pacific." He was pious, generous, and politic, though not without some mixture of vice. He understood perfectly the interests of his kingdom, made many wholesome laws, and increased his navy to a surprising degree. The happiness of his reign must in a great measure, be ascribed to the wisdom of St. Dunstan, whose counsels he principally followed, and for whom he entertained the greatest veneration. He was, however, so vain of his power, as to command eight of his tributary kings to row him on the river Dee, whilst he held the steerage, after causing them to take an oath to serve him faithfully by sea and land. He did not long survive this pompous ceremony: dying, in 975, after a reign of sixteen years, in the thirty-second of his age. He was buried at Glastonbury. The zeal of this prince for the worship of God had a great influence upon his people; and he would have surpassed in happiness all his predecessors, had he not given way to the crime which made David so odious in the sight of God, and drew upon his house the divine vengeance. The relation is shortly as follows: Ordga, Duke of Devonshire, had a daughter called Elfrida, the fame of whose beauty was so great, that the king, to be assured of the truth, sent his secretary Ethelwold to ascertain it, being resolved to marry her if she was found as beautiful as was reported. Ethelwold suffered himself to be overcome by those charms, which he found even to surpass report; and sacrificing his fidelity to his passion, told the king that her fortune and quality alone procured her the admiration of the world; but, he added, "though she has nothing worthy to claim the attention of a sovereign, yet her immense wealth and noble blood make her a proper match for me." Edgar, ready to promote the interest of his favourite, immediately granted his consent, and he was accordingly married to her. Royal favourites are never without enemies; and indeed the deceit was of a nature not to be long concealed. Edgar was soon

informed of the treachery of his secretary; but dissembling his resentment, he took an occasion to visit that part of the country with Ethelwold. Upon coming near the abode of the lady, he told him he had a curiosity to see a person of whom he had formerly heard so much, and desired to be introduced to her. Ethelwold was thunderstruck at the proposal; but composing himself as well as he could, he requested he might ride on before, to prepare his wife for his majesty's reception. On his arrival, he fell at his wife's feet, confessing what he had done to obtain her, conjuring her to conceal as much as possible her beauty from the king. She was now sensible, that instead of a monarch she had espoused a subject. She promised compliance; but, prompted by ambition and revenge, she adorned her person with the most exquisite art and allurement. The event answered her expectations; the king no sooner saw her, than giving way to his predominant passion, which was augmented by a thirst for revenge, he instantly resolved to obtain her. The better to effect his purpose he concealed his passion from the husband, and took his leave with seeming indifference. Ethelwold was some time after sent into Northumberland, upon pretence of urgent business, but was found murdered in a wood by the way; Edgar then married the widow, and had by her a son, named Ethelred. Sensible, however, soon after, of his enormous guilt, he sincerely bewailed it, and did penance for it the remainder of his life. He died in 975, regretted by all his subjects, after a reign of sixteen years and two months, in the thirty-second year of his age, and was buried at Glastonbury.

Edward the Martyr.—Edward the Martyr, his son by his first wife, succeeded to the throne. He was a prince of a mild and pious disposition, shewing a great love of purity, and a veneration for religion and its ministers, following strictly the wise counsels of St. Dunstan. His step-mother, Elfrida, had attempted to set him aside, that her own son Ethelred might enjoy the crown. Notwithstanding her treasonable conduct, Edward always paid her the most dutiful respect; but the lust of ambition made her insensible to all motives of religion or gratitude; the young king being one day hunting, paid a visit to Elfrida; the treacherous queen received

him with every mark of respect, and ordered some wine to be brought. While he was drinking, on a signal given, one of her servants stabbed him in the back with a dagger. The king, feeling the wound, set spurs to his horse; but fainting with loss of blood, he fell and died on the 18th of March, 979, in the eighteenth year of his age, and fourth of his reign. His body was plunged into a deep marsh; but it was taken out and interred in the church of Our Lady of Wareham: three years afterwards it was found entire, and translated to the monastery of Shaftsbury. The wicked Elfrida, at last awakened to a just sense of her crimes, retired from the world, and built the monasteries of Wherebul and Amblesbury, in the first of which she died in the practice of penance.

979.—Ethelred, surnamed the "Unready."—By the death of Edward there was left only one prince of the royal blood, which obliged the prelates and nobles, though with great reluctance, to place the crown on the head of Ethelred, the son of the murderess. Archbishop Dunstan, who performed the ceremony, declaring in a prophetic manner, as he put the crown upon his head, that his sins, and those of his ignominious mother, should not be expiated but by great bloodshed of his miserable people; for such calamities should fall upon England as it had never sustained since it bore that name. All which came shortly to pass; for, in addition to various calamities, the Danes again infested England, plundering, defacing, and destroying every thing that came in their way. Ethelred, too slothful and cowardly to make head against them, agreed to give them £10,000, on condition they should quit the country, and no more infest the coast. "An infamous example," says Malmesbury, "and unworthy of men, to redeem their liberty with money, which no violence can force from a brave and unconquered mind."

This sum of money, far from quieting the Danes, only made them the more eager; and landing the next year, they exceeded, if possible, their former cruelties. They burnt Oxford and Cambridge, and laid waste the counties. Ethelred had recourse to the same unworthy means, and a second and a third time procured a temporary respite, by increased sums of money.

During this lamentable period of baseness and cowardice, a noble instance of courage and firmness occurred in the person of Alphege, Archbishop of Canterbury. Alphege defended that city during twenty days, and when a traitor opened its gates to the Danes, and he was made prisoner, and, loaded with chains, he refused to purchase liberty and life with gold, which, he knew, must be wrung from the people. Tired out by his resistance, they proposed to take a small sum from him, if he would advise the king to pay the remainder of the ransom. "I do not possess so much money, as you demand of me," replied the archbishop, "and I will not ask or take money from anybody, nor will I advise my king against the honour of his country." The Danes, more covetous of money than desirous of his blood, frequently renewed their demands. "You press me in vain," said Alphege; "I am not the man to provide Christian flesh for Pagan teeth, by robbing my poor countrymen to enrich their enemies." The Danes, at length, lost patience, and one day, when assembled at their drunken orgies, they caused the archbishop to be dragged into their presence. "Gold, bishop, give us gold, gold!" was their cry; and they gathered round him with menacing attitudes. Still unmoved, he looked calmly around that circle of fierce men, who presently broke up in rage and disorder, and running to a heap of bones, horns, and jawbones, the remains of their gross feast, they threw them at him until he fell to the ground half-dead. A Danish pirate, whom he had himself baptized, then seized his battle-axe, and put an end to the agony and life of the archbishop.

Ethelred, now a widower, sought the hand of Emma, sister of the Duke of Normandy, in hopes by this means to strengthen himself against his enemies, the Danes. This alliance, which laid the first grounds for the pretext of Norman claims on England, was readily accepted by the Duke Richard, and in the spring of 1002, Emma, "the Flower of Normandy," as she was styled, arrived at the court of Ethelred. Scarcely were the rejoicings for this marriage over, when Ethelred, now enjoying some repose, listened to the evil counsel of some of his favourites, who advised him to destroy all the Danes at one blow. With the utmost secrecy

letters were sent to every part of his dominions, commanding all his subjects, at a certain day and hour, to set upon the Danes wherever they found them, and destroy them without mercy. This command was strictly executed; and the Danes, who by a solemn treaty had been permitted to inhabit England, were shamefully and barbarously murdered. (A. D. 1013.) This treachery did not long remain unpunished. Sweyn, king of Denmark, suddenly appeared off the coast with a numerous army, breathing revenge; and though he was at first obliged, by the bravery of some English troops, and a horrible famine which infested the whole land, to withdraw to his ships, he soon received fresh reinforcements, and constrained Ethelred to flee into Normandy. (A.D. 1014.) Sweyn, who had been acknowledged king, died about a month after; and Ethelred regained possession of the throne, which, at his death, he left to his son Edmund, surnamed Ironside, on account of his great bodily strength.

1016.—EDMUND IRONSIDE.—Edmund fought many bloody battles with Canute, son of Sweyn, and gained several great victories; but the Danish and English nobility, equally harassed by these convulsions, obliged their kings to come to a compromise, and divide the kingdom between them. Edmund was murdered about a month after, by a perfidious traitor, Edric, Earl of Wiltshire, who had long been in secret league with the Danes, and Canute was left in peaceable possession of the kingdom. (A.D. 1017.)

CHAPTER II.

ECCLESIASTICAL AFFAIRS OF THE SAXONS.

Religion suffered great persecutions in Britain from the barbarity of the Pagan Saxons. They burnt the churches, stained the altars with the blood of the clergy, and massacred all whom they found professing Christianity. Scarcely, however, had the Saxons obtained the undisputed possession of the kingdom, when a private monk conceived the exalted design of reducing these

savage warriors under the obedience of the Gospel. Gregory, afterwards surnamed the Great, happening to pass through the public market at Rome, where some Saxon youths were exposed to sale, their beauty caught his eye, and demanding from what country they came, was informed they were Angles; upon which, with a pious zeal he exclaimed, "Non Angli, sed angeli forent, si essent Christiani;"—"They would not be Angles, but angels, if they were Christians." He immediately repaired to Pope Benedict, and obtaining a license from him, began his journey towards Britain. But the Roman people would not suffer the absence of a man they so much venerated, and caused him to return. His elevation soon after to the papal throne obliged him to abandon the design; moved, however, as Bede says, by a divine impulse, in the fourth year of his pontificate, he sent over Augustine, with some zealous monks, to preach the Gospel in Britain; but being discouraged while on their journey by unfavourable reports, they despatched Augustine, their superior, to Gregory, to beseech him that they might return home, and not be sent to a fierce and infidel nation, of whose language they were ignorant, and whom they had such slender hopes of converting. The Pope, however, sent back their messengers, exhorting them not to be discouraged by vain reports, but to pursue vigorously the great work they had so nobly undertaken, since their labours would be crowned with perpetual glory; and commanding them to obey Augustine, whom he appointed their abbot.

Of the Saxon kingdoms, the most ancient, and at the same time the best disposed to listen to the truths of Christianity, was that of Kent. Bertha, daughter of Charibert, king of Paris, was married to Ethelbert the sovereign; but before he was admitted to this alliance, he was obliged to stipulate that his princess should enjoy the free exercise of her religion. This, and the saintly life of Luidhard, the prelate, who attended her, made very strong impressions upon the king, as well as his subjects, in favour of Christianity. (A. D. 596.) It was at this favourable conjuncture that Augustine landed in the isle of Thanet, and sent one of his interpreters to the king, declaring he was come to conduct him to the gates of eternal felicity. The king consented to

receive them; but, according to the superstition of the times, fearful of their resorting to the influence of magic, he gave them audience in the open air. They were received by Ethelbert most favourably, and though he did not immediately declare himself a Christian, the solemnity of the public service, the zeal, austerity, and virtue of St. Augustine and his followers, had such a powerful effect upon him and his people, that he was soon after baptized with upwards of 10,000 of his subjects.

From Kent the faith spread to Essex and Northumberland. Edwin, king of Northumbria, was married to Ethelburgh, daughter of Ethelbert. This princess took with her the pious and learned bishop Paulinus into Northumbria. Edwin, solicited by his queen, held several conferences with Paulinus, disputed with his councillors, or meditated alone; and, after serious discussion, determined to declare himself a Christian. Attended by Paulinus, he entered the great council, and exposed his reasons for embracing Christianity. Coiffi, the high-priest of the Druids, replied that he was ready and willing to listen to the reasons and examine the doctrine of Paulinus. He was followed by an ancient thane, who, in the simple style of those times, spoke thus: "When, O king, you are seated at your table in the depth of winter, and the cheerful fire blazes on the hearth, a sparrow, perchance chased by the wind and snow, enters at one door of the hall and escapes by the other. During its momentary passage, it enjoys the warmth; but immediately it departs to be seen no more. Such is the nature of man. For a few short years his existence is visible; but what preceded it, or will follow it, is hidden from our view. If this new religion can give us any information on these important subjects, it merits our attention." To these reasons all assented, and Paulinus having explained the articles of the faith, the king expressed his determination to embrace it. When it was asked, who would dare to profane the altars of Woden, Coiffi boldly stept forward. Laying aside his priestly emblems, he put on the dress of a warrior, and mounted the favourite charger of Edwin; then bidding defiance to the gods of his forefathers, he hurled his spear at the sacred edifice. It stuck in the wall, and to the aston-

ishment of the superstitious and trembling spectators, the heavens remained silent, and the fancied sacrilege unpunished. Then, recovering from their surprise, and encouraged by the exhortation of Coiffi, they burnt to the ground the temple and surrounding grove.

So favourable a beginning inspired hopes of the entire conversion of the nation. But who can fathom the unsearchable ways of Providence! Edwin was slain, fighting bravely against Penda, king of Mercia, and Cædwalla, king of the Britons. The victors plundered the kingdom. Edilburga, her children, and Paulinus, were compelled to seek an asylum in Kent, and the converts, deprived of instruction, relapsed into their former idolatry. Oswald, son of Adelfrid, the predecessor of Edwin, determined to revenge the cause of his country, and the death of his brother, whom Cædwalla had treacherously murdered. With a small but courageous band of followers he met the enemy. Before the battle he ordered a cross to be erected, and the Saxons, prostrate before it, besought the protection of the God of the Christians. From prayers they arose to victory: Cædwalla was slain, the enemy routed, and Oswald ascended the throne of his ancestors. Piously attributing this success to the protection of Heaven, he immediately turned his attention to religion, and besought a supply of missionaries from his former instructors. Aidan, a private monk, was selected to be the apostle of the Northumbrians. He was consecrated bishop, and by his ardent zeal, prudence, and piety, the church of Northumberland was fixed upon a solid and permanent foundation.

In the kingdom of Essex, Seberct, nephew to Ethelbert, king of Kent, also embraced Christianity, and invited the abbot Melitus to reside in his metropolis. But after his death, his three sons, who were still attached to the worship of Woden, bursting into the Church during the time of mass, demanded a portion of the consecrated bread. Melitus, who had lately been consecrated bishop, dared to refuse, and was in consequence banished.

The merit of the conversion of the East Angles is principally owing to the good Sigebert. No sooner had he ascended the throne, than Felix, a Burgundian prelate, commissioned by Honorius of Canterbury, requested per-

mission to instruct his subjects. By their united efforts Christianity was rapidly diffused, and a school after the model of one at Canterbury, was established.

In the south, Berinus, animated by a holy zeal, obtained a commission from Pope Honorius. Scarcely had he opened his mission, when, by a providential concurrence of circumstances, Oswy, son of Oswald of Northumbria, arrived at the court of Cynegils, to demand his daughter in marriage. He powerfully seconded the arguments of Berinus; the prince and his daughter embraced the Christian faith, and their example was followed by his subjects.

Mercia, the most powerful kingdom of the heptarchy, owed its conversion also to a woman. Peada, son of Penda, had offered his hand to the daughter of Oswin, successor of Oswald; but she rejected the addresses of a pagan. The passion of the prince induced him to study her religion. His conversion was rewarded with the object of his affections; and to those who doubted his sincerity he replied, "That not even the refusal of Alcfleda should ever induce him to return to the worship of Woden." To give a proof of his sincerity, he procured four priests to instruct the Middle Angles, whom he governed during the life of his father.

The kingdom of Sussex was the last to embrace Christianity; but their blindness and prejudices gave way to the piety, zeal, and address of St. Wilfrid. His first converts were two hundred and fifty slaves, whom, together with the isle of Selsea, he had received from their king Edilwalch. On the day of their baptism their benevolent instructor set them at liberty, declaring that they ceased to be his bondsmen from the moment they became children of Christ. This liberality of St. Wilfrid was greatly felt; many crowded to his sermons, and in the space of five years the Christian religion was firmly established.

Thus, in about the space of eighty years, the conversion of the Anglo-Saxons was completed; an enterprise begun by Gregory the Great, and continued with unremitting zeal by his disciples. Its benign effects upon the body of the nation were quickly felt; for, from the date of their conversion, the Saxons, who had been accounted the most ferocious and barbarous

of all the nations that had invaded the Roman empire, became mild, humane, and pious. Even in victory they learned to respect humanity; and the lives and property of the vanquished were protected by their Christian conquerors. Religious knowledge, and the presence of the bishops and clergy, improved the wisdom of the national councils; and the humane idea, that by baptism all men became brethren, meliorated the condition of the slave, and at length abolished so odious an institution. The conviction of a future state expanded their ideas, and teaching them to despise all earthly grandeur, caused even many of their kings to descend from their thrones, and pass the remainder of their lives in monasteries.

St. Austin divided the country into two archbishoprics: London, which was afterwards transferred to Canterbury, and York, with twelve suffragan bishops to each; after which he turned his solicitude towards the Britons, whose religion and morals had been much weakened by the long and unsuccessful wars they had waged against their fierce invaders. Many also of the clergy, during these unhappy times, were more anxious to enjoy the emoluments, than discharge the duties of their calling.

St. Gregory lamented, and endeavoured to remedy these disorders. He invested St. Austin with an extensive jurisdiction over all the bishops of the Britons. At a conference held with seven of them, he demanded their agreement on three points: the observation of the orthodox time of Easter; conformity with the Roman rite, in the administration of baptism; and concert with him in preaching the Gospel to the Saxons. These requests were however refused, and his metropolitan authority rejected; upon which the archbishop, rising up, exclaimed, "Know, then, that if you will not assist me in pointing out to the Saxons the way of life, they, by the just judgments of God, will prove to you the ministers of death." Augustine did not long survive this unsuccessful attempt; and his prediction was verified a few years after by Edilfrid, the Pagan king of Northumberland, who in the year 613 entered the British territories, and destroyed nearly 1,200 monks from the monastery of Bangor, who were assembled on a neighbouring mountain, to pray for the success of the Britons in the battle.

The choice of bishops was at first reserved to the national synods, in which the primate presided; it afterwards devolved on the clergy of each church, whose choice was corroborated by the presence and acclamations of the more respectable among the laity. But feudal jealousy forbade the consecration of the elected bishops till the royal consent was obtained; and at the same time the monarch claimed the right of investing the new prelate with the temporalities of his bishopric. These encroachments were progressive, till in the end the rights of the chapter were openly invaded, and bishops were appointed, without waiting for the choice of the clergy. At last the pontiff interfered, and reclaimed the ancient freedom of canonical election, which gave rise to those frequent disputes concerning investitures, so much to the scandal and disorder of the nation.

In the infancy of the Saxon church, the scanty supply of missionaries was unequal to the increasing demands of the people. The bishop either followed the court, and preached according to his leisure; or fixed his residence in some particular spot, whence, attended by his clergy, he visited the remote parts of his diocese, which was then of an enormous extent, equal to that of the kingdom in which it was established. Churches were not erected, except in monasteries, or the more populous cities; and the inhabitants of the country depended for instruction on the casual arrival of priests, whose charity, or the orders of their superiors, induced them to undertake those laborious duties. This was soon found beyond the powers of the most zealous to fulfil. St. Theodore, the primate, distributed each diocese into a number of parishes, exhorting the thanes or nobles, to erect and endow, with the permission of the sovereign, a competent number of churches; and to stimulate their devotion, he secured to them and their heirs a right of patronage, reserving at the same time that authority which was necessary for the government of his clergy.

As to the revenues of the church, they consisted principally of donations of lands which were from time to time, bestowed by the pious liberality of our ancestors; and their value was greatly augmented by the privileges and immunities annexed to them. This spirit of munificence, which distinguished the first

converts, was inherited by many of their descendants. In every age of the Saxon dynasty, we may observe numerous additions to the original donations. Of many, the great object was to support the ministers of religion, and, by supporting them, to contribute to the service of the Almighty. Others were desirous to relieve their indigent brethren; and with this view they confided their charities to the distribution of the clergy, the legitimate guardians of the patrimony of the poor. A third class was composed of thanes, who, having acquired riches by successful crimes, and deferred restitution till the victims of their injustice had disappeared, were induced to confer, as a tardy atonement, some part of their property on the church.

The principal resource, however, of the parochial clergy, was the institution of tithes, after the example of the law of Moses. These, till about the seventh century, had been voluntary; but mankind are not always prompted to make pecuniary sacrifices from a sense of duty alone, and the institution of parochial churches imperiously required an augmentation of the number of pastors. To provide, therefore, for their support, the payment of tithes was strictly commanded by civil and ecclesiastical authority. These revenues, from whatever source, were divided into four equal parts: one to the bishop, for the support of his dignity; a second for the maintenance of the clergy; a third furnished the repairs of the church and the religious ornaments; and the last was devoted to charitable purposes.

Each Sunday the priest explained in English that portion of the Bible which was read during mass, and devoted a part of his time to the instruction of his parishioners. Every dissipating and indecorous employment was forbidden to the clergy; they could neither accept of civil offices, nor engage in commercial speculations. Public diversions they were exhorted to despise, and to employ their leisure hours in the study of the Scriptures, and the exercise of manual labour. Their dress was to be plain and decent, conformable to the severity of the canons. The celibacy of the clergy was strictly enjoined, and, for more than two hundred and fifty years from the death of St. Austin, was strictly enforced. But during the devastations of the Danes

and the consequent disorders, some of the clergy did not scruple to violate the chastity they had sworn to observe. Yet, even in those unhappy times, these marriages were never approved; and as often as a transient gleam of tranquillity invited the prelates to turn their attention to the restoration of discipline, the prohibitions of the former synods were renewed.

LEARNING AND LEARNED MEN.

When the Romans invaded Britain, they instructed and improved those whom they subdued. The Saxons, on the contrary, a fierce and illiterate people, marked their progress by destruction. All the libraries left by the Romans were destroyed by their ravages; and if science was not totally extirpated, it is to religion alone they owed the blessing. The duties of the priesthood necessarily required a daily study of the Scriptures, and a familiarity with the ancient fathers. The study of the Latin was necessary to the knowledge of the church service; and for this purpose schools were established in the monastic and clerical communities. The study of this language produced an acquaintance with the works of the poets and philosophers of Greece and Rome; and in these studies the Saxon clergy and monks acquired a distinguished superiority over the other nations of Europe. It was to Theodore, archbishop of Canterbury, and Adrian, abbot of St. Peter's, that the Saxons were indebted for this advantage. Compassionating the ignorance of their converts, these holy men dedicated their leisure hours to their instruction; and masters, formed under their inspection, were dispersed among the principal monasteries. To discover and collect the remains of ancient knowledge, was among the principal objects which prompted the Anglo-Saxons to visit distant countries; and in the monasteries these manuscripts were soon found multiplied by innumerable copies, a considerable portion of time being allotted to the transcription. The most ancient of these libraries was that of Canterbury, which owed its establishment to Gregory the Great, but was much increased by Archbishop Theodore. Another collection was possessed by the monastery at Were-

mouth, the fruit of the labours of St. Bennet Biscop; but the most extensive appears to have been that of York, in the catalogue of which, given by Alcuin, we find the name of almost every distinguished Latin author.

In their system of education, religious knowledge and morality were their principal studies; but other departments were not neglected. It is true, the sciences were mixed with many errors, which must be attributed to the ignorance of the times, more than to their want of industry or penetration.

A catalogue of their authors has been collected, among whom the most worthy of notice are St. Bennet Biscop, Aldhelm, Bede, and Alcuin.

St. Bennet Biscop was nobly descended, and one of the great officers of the court of Oswy, the pious king of Northumberland; but seeing nothing but dangers in the allurements of a court, he bade adieu to the world at the age of twenty-five, and went on a pilgrimage to Rome. Five or six years after he made another journey, and before his return became a monk, and was afterwards chosen abbot of St. Peter's, in Canterbury In three other journeys which he took, he exceedingly enriched that library. He brought from Germany and Gaul, masons to build his monastery of Weremouth stone buildings before that time being very rare in England. He also founded the abbey of Jarrow, on the banks of the Tyne. He died in 690.

St. Aldhelm, abbot of Malmsbury, and afterwards bishop of Sherburn, was a West Saxon, a near relation of king Ina, and received his education partly under St. Adrian, of Canterbury, but chiefly from Moulduff, an Irishman, the founder of the monastery of Malmsbury. His Saxon compositions obtained him the applause of his countrymen. Emboldened by their approbation, he aspired to higher excellence, and became the first Englishman, as he himself informs us, who cultivated the Latin poetry. His reputation became so great, that even foreigners submitted their writings to his judgment. After having been abbot of Malmsbury for thirty years, he was obliged to quit his cell, and take upon him the bishopric of Sherburn. He died in the visitation of his diocese, in the year 709.

Bede, who has been honoured by posterity with the

title of "Venerable," was born in a village between the Tyne and the Were. Endowed with great natural talents, and anxious to improve them, he applied without intermission to the study of the sciences. With little other help than what the library of his monastery afforded him, and amidst the numerous duties of the monastic institute, his ardent and comprehensive mind embraced every science then studied, and raised him to a high pre-eminence above all his contemporaries. At the time of his writing the Ecclesiastical History of the Anglo-Saxons, he informs us that he had devoted fifty-two years to what he considered the most delightful of all pursuits, his own improvement, and the instruction of his pupils. In the catalogue of the books which he had composed, and which for the most part are still extant, we find elementary introductions to the different sciences, treatises on physic, astronomy, and geography; with sermons and commentaries on the Holy Scriptures. But of all his works, his ecclesiastical history is the most celebrated; it was received with universal approbation, and translated into the Saxon by Alfred the Great, for the instruction of his countrymen. That it contains a faithful record of the times is allowed by all; and if to those who wish to doubt of the truth of every miracle, the credulity of Bede may appear a blemish, yet his candour, sincerity, and piety, must please and edify every reader. Bede died as he had lived, in the practice of devotion, and the prosecution of his studies. During his last illness, he had undertaken an Anglo-Saxon translation of the Gospel of St. John, and had reached the sixth chapter the evening of his death. One of his scholars, to whom he was dictating it, said to him, "Dear master, one sentence is not yet finished." "Then write it quickly," replied Bede. The young man soon after said, "It is finished." "Truly," exclaimed the dying saint, "it is finished. Hold my head in thy hands, for it is a pleasure to me to sit opposite my little oratory where I used to pray; there let me invoke my heavenly Father." He was placed upon the pavement of his cell, repeated the Gloria Patri, and expired in the sixty-second year of his age, 735.

Alcuin was born at York, and educated in the fa-

mous school of that city, under archbishop Egbert, brother of the king of Northumbria, who had himself been a disciple of Bede. The virtue, docility, and talents of Alcuin soon attracted the notice, and secured the affection of his noble master. Egbert, at his death, bequeathed to him his library, and chose him to succeed to the important office of teacher. The abilities and reputation of Alcuin added to the ancient reputation of the school; and students from Gaul and Germany crowded to the lectures of so renowned a master. He wrote for the use of his pupils treatises on most of the sciences; compiled the lives of several eminent persons; and composed several poems. He also wrote comments on the Holy Scriptures, from the works of the fathers. His last labours were employed on a subject of the highest importance to religion, viz. a revision of the Latin vulgate. He died at the abbey of St. Martin, at Tours, about the year 810.

Among the learned at this time, we must not omit Alfred the Great, who was not only a scholar himself, but a great encourager of learned men; and it was to Osburga, his mother, Alfred owed that passion for learning by which he was so nobly distinguished from his contemporaries. Holding in her hand a Saxon poem, elegantly written and beautifully illuminated, she offered it as a reward to the first of her children who should be able to read it. Alfred immediately applied diligently and perseveringly to the task, performed it to the delight of the queen, and received the reward of his industry. At the death of his parents, he was put under the care of his elder brother, who so neglected the education which had been begun by his mother, that at the age of twelve he was far from being perfect even in the humble attainment of reading: fully impressed however with the importance of learning, he sought every opportunity to regain the lost time, and as soon as possible after he had established tranquillity he founded schools on a very extensive plan; and though Oxford had been a seat of learning in more ancient times, yet that university appears to have been so entirely ruined in the beginning of his reign, that he may be justly called its father and founder. He established schools, he taught the people to build bet-

ter houses, he founded or rebuilt towns, he caused a survey to be made of the coast and rivers, he built fifty strong towers in various parts of the country, and established so efficient a system of police, that it was generally affirmed that golden bracelets and jewels might have been hung up in the highways, and no one would have dared to touch them for fear of the law. He heard all appeals with the utmost patience, and in cases of great importance revised all the proceedings with the greatest industry. He usually divided his time into three portions; one was given to devotion and study, another to the despatch of business, and the third to diet, exercise, and sleep. He made a considerable progress in the different studies of grammar, rhetoric, philosophy, architecture, and geometry; he was an excellent historian, understood music, and was one of the best Saxon poets of his time. His multiplied labours in the court, the camp, the hall of justice, the study, must have been prodigious; and our admiration of this wonderful man is increased by the well established fact, that all these exertions were made in spite of the depressing influences of physical pain and constantly bad health. Indeed, if we consider his whole life, we shall seldom find any one that so admirably discharged all the offices of a Christian and a king. By his example we may learn, that no infirmity of body, no labour of mind, no disquietude nor dangers, can exempt us from performing our duty towards God and man. Alfred was constantly present at the Divine service, and in the night, when others were at rest, he would repair alone to the church, to perform his devotions; he superintended himself the distribution of alms, and in all these offices behaved with such affability, meekness, and humility, as gained him the hearts of all that approached him.

But the chief seat of learning at this time, and for a later period, was Ireland. Bede informs us that the English of all ranks retired to Ireland for devotion or study. Of the learned attracted to the court of France by the munificent patronage of Charlemagne, the most eminent were Irishmen; but the glory of the age, and of Irish scholarship, was Joannes Scotus, or, as he is frequently called, Erigena; his productions clearly

shew that the Greek language was at this time taught in the Irish schools. (A. D. 874.) He was the author of several Greek translations. He also details a curious conversation on the elements of things and the motions of the heavenly bodies; he even gives the calculations on the diameters of the lunar and solar circles. Another eminent Irishman was Donatus, bishop of Fiesole, in Italy, author of a short Latin poem in praise of Ireland. Sedulius, bishop of Oreto, in Spain, was also an Irishman. He wrote a commentary on the epistles of St. Paul, and a treatise, entitled "The Concordance of Spain and Hibernia," in which he maintains the Irish to be of Spanish origin.

CHAPTER III.

GOVERNMENT, LAWS, COMMERCE, AGRICULTURE.

The Saxon annals are too imperfect to delineate, with any precision, the prerogatives of the crown, or the privileges of the people. We know that there was a national assembly called Wittenagamot, viz., the assembly of the Wise, whose consent was necessary to the enacting of laws. They generally met at the festivals of Christmas, Easter, and Whitsuntide; and if unforeseen circumstances required it, at other times. The constituent members were, the dignified clergy, the nobility, and freeholders possessed of certain lands. In their legislative capacity, they provided for the defence of the realm, the punishment or prevention of crimes, and the due administration of justice: as judges, they summoned before them state criminals, decided civil controversies, and pronounced sentence of outlawry or forfeiture.

In civil cases, the judges, after hearing the testimony of the witnesses, frequently decided the cause; but if assertions were made which could not be proved by evidence, the party was put on his oath, and obliged to bring forward a certain number of freeholders, acquainted with his character, to swear to the truth of the assertion. The value of an oath was according to the rank of the person. The king and archbishop, whose

words were deemed sacred, were exempt from the obligation of swearing. The oath of a king's thane was equal to the oaths of six earls, the oath of an earldoman to those of six thanes.

In criminal affairs, the process was somewhat different; the reeve or sheriff, with the twelve oldest thanes, were sworn not to conceal the guilty, nor sentence the innocent. If the accused pleaded not guilty, he had two methods by which he might prove his innocence, the purgation of swearing, and the ordeal or judgment of God; but, to prevent unnecessary appeals, it was provided, that if the culprit failed, he should undergo a more severe punishment for his impiety. In the purgation by oath, after calling God to witness his innocence, he produced his compurgators, who were from four to seventy-two, according to the custom of the place and greatness of the crime. If they all corroborated his oath, he was acquitted. If he had recourse to the ordeal, the time was fixed by the court, and the accused spent three days in fasting and praying, at the end of which time the ordeal was prepared. In the ordeal by fire, which was generally used for persons of high birth, the process was either by walking barefooted and blindfold over nine red-hot ploughshares, laid at unequal distances, or by holding in the hands a red hot iron. In the latter case, the accuser and the accused, each accompanied by twelve of their friends, were ranged in two lines opposite to each other, near the fire; a space equal to nine of the prisoner's feet was divided into three parts; near the first space was erected a stone column, on which was laid an iron bar, of two or three pounds, according to the enormity of the offence. Mass then began, and the bar was put into the fire; at the last collect it was taken out and put on the column; the prisoner then immediately took it into his hand, stept on each of the three lines, and then cast it away. The priest immediately wrapt up the hand in a linen cloth, upon which he fixed the seal of the church, and opened it again in three days; if the hand was perfectly healed, he was pronounced innocent; if not, he underwent the punishment of his crime. For the purgation by water, a fire was kindled under a boiler in a certain part of the church. In the

boiling water was put a stone, or piece of iron; then the accused advanced, and plunging his arm into the boiling water, took out the stone; a cloth, as before, was wrapped round the arm by the clergyman, and the examination, as in the ordeal by fire, was resorted to.

The criminal laws were uncommonly mild. Murder was compensated by money, not excepting the king's life. The fine for all kinds of wounds was also settled; the price of a limb was not the same in all parts of England; in one county it might be three pounds, in another only forty shillings.

In ancient times, our kings received neither gold nor silver from their tenants, but only provisions; and this custom was continued even after the Conquest. By the laws of Ina, the following rent was paid for ten hides of land, viz. ten casks of honey, three hundred loaves of bread, twelve casks of strong ale, thirty casks of small ale, two oxen, ten wethers, ten geese, twenty hens, ten cheeses, one cask of butter, five salmon, one hundred eels. In some places these rents were paid in wheat, rye, oats, malt, flour, hogs, sheep, &c., according to the nature of the farm, or the custom of the country. But although this was the general mode, money-rents were not altogether unknown.

With regard to the Saxon titles of rank, the first of course was that of Cyning, or king. The reader must have observed, in the succession to the throne, that respect was not always had to hereditary right, but in all cases, whether by descent or election, the approval of the wittan was necessary. He had the supreme command of all the forces by sea or by land. Appeals from every court of justice might be made to him, and the chief portion of the fines levied on offenders was paid to him; he had also the power of pardoning and commuting the punishment of death. The earldoman, sheriffs, and judges were appointed by him, and removable at his pleasure. The next title was Etheling, or son of the noble, which was reserved for the princes of the blood royal. After these, earldoman, governor or viceroy of provinces or shires, and sometimes styled prince and satrap; his duty was to determine law-suits and judge criminals. This office gave place to the title of Eorle, or Earl, which was Danish, and established by

Canute. Sheriff was the deputy of the Earldoman, chosen by him, sat as judge for him, and saw sentences executed. Thanes, viz. servants, were officers of the crown, whom the king recompensed with lands. The Thanes were succeeded by the Barons, a title brought in by the Normans. Ceorl (whence our word Churl) was a freeholder and husbandman. As such he could not be put in bonds, nor be liable to the ignominious punishment of whipping, to which slaves alone could be subjected.

Slavery continued in England for a considerable time after the conversion of the Saxons. They were by far the most numerous class of the community, and consisted of two kinds, viz. household slaves, and rustic slaves, called Villani, or Villains, because they dwelt in the country, and performed the labours of cultivation.

With regard to commerce, by far the most remarkable and significant event of this time, and which proves the estimation in which it was already held, is the law passed in the reign of king Athelstan, by which it was enacted, that every merchant who should have made three voyages over the sea, with a ship and cargo of his own, should have the rank of Thane. From this time, fleets and ships of war come to be frequently mentioned. A considerable commerce, particularly in slaves, was carried on with the eastern coast of Ireland.

In the biography of St. Wulstan, bishop of Worcester, at the time of the Conquest, the following curious account is given: "There is a sea-port town called Bristol, opposite to Ireland, into which the Irish make frequent voyages; from this port, men and women, bought in all parts of England, are exported to Ireland for the sake of gain. O! horrid wickedness, to give up their nearest relations, even their own children, to slavery." St. Wulstan, however, by the fervency of his preaching and example, made so great an impression on their minds, that they abandoned that wicked trade, and set an example to all the rest of England to do the same. But for this remarkable passage, it would scarcely have been suspected, that there ever was a time when the natives of England were regularly exported, as slaves, to Ireland.

Chester is also mentioned as one of the ports, to which the Irish ships were accustomed to resort. Its

inhabitants are described by William of Malmsbury, as depending in his day upon Ireland, for a supply of the necessaries of life. Notices are also found of merchants from Ireland landing at Cambridge with cloths, and exposing their merchandize for sale. The other English ports noticed as possessed of ships, at and before the Conquest, are Pevensey, Rumney, Hythe, Folkstone, Dover, Sandwich, Southwark, and London. Bede speaks of ships sailing to Rome, and it appears, they sometimes joined together, and went armed for mutual protection. The other trading towns were York, Exeter, and Norwich.

Other exports were tin, lead, wood, hides, and horses. With respect to imports, there is a curious elucidation quoted by Turner, from a volume of Saxon dialogues, apparently intended for a school-book, in which the merchant, as one of the characters introduced, gives an account of his occupation:—"I say that I am useful to the king, and to earldermen, and to the rich, and to all people. I ascend my ship with my merchandize, and sail over the sea-like places and sell my things, and buy dear things which are not produced in this land, and I bring them to you here with great danger over the sea, and sometimes I suffer shipwreck with the loss of all my things, scarcely escaping myself." He is then asked, "What do you bring us?" to which he answers, "Skins, silks, costly gems, and gold, various garments, pigment, wine, oil, ivory, and orichalcus (probably brass), copper, tin, silver, glass, and such like."

The principal coins were the silver penny, which contained the two hundred and fortieth part of a pound of silver: this was divided into the halfling, or halfpenny, and farthling, or farthing. The mancus contained thirty pennies, the mark one hundred and sixty, the ora sixteen, the great shilling twelve, the common one five. In April, 1817, a wooden box was turned up by a ploughman in a field near Dorking, in Surrey, which contained nearly 700 Saxon pennies, principally of the coinages of Ethelwulf, the son of Egbert, and of Ethelbert, the father of Alfred. In 1820, eighty-three silver coins of Ethelred, and two of his father Edgar, were found by a peasant in Sweden, which are now

deposited in the Royal Cabinet of Stockholm; and in 1832, a brass vessel, containing several thousand small coins, principally of kings of Northumbria, were found at Hexham. About three hundred of these are now in the British Museum.

From one of the laws of king Ethelred, we learn that the average price of the following articles, about the end of the 10th century, was—

		£.	s.	d.	
For a Slave	a pound, equal to	2	16	3	sterling
Horse	30 shillings ——	1	15	2	——
Mare or Colt	20 ——	1	3	5	——
Ass or Mule	12 ——	0	14	1	——
Ox	6 ——	0	7	0½	——
Cow	5 ——	0	5	6	——
Swine	1 — 3 pennies	0	1	10½	——
Sheep	1 shilling ——	0	1	2	——
Goat	2 pennies	0	0	5½	——

With the exception of the price of agricultural produce, we scarcely know any thing. Books were scarcer than money, and consequently bore a very high price. The great bulk of the people were engaged in producing food, particularly in pasturing cattle, sheep, and swine. The lands kept manured did not amount to more than a fourth part of the whole farm. Horses were not employed in field labour, but only oxen. The lands belonging to the church were generally in the best state of cultivation, the woods were better cleared, the quantity of waste land smaller. The monks themselves engaged in the labours of the field. Bede, in his lives of the Abbots of Wearmouth, tells us, that one of the ecclesiastics, "being a strong man and humble, used sometimes to guide the plough, and sometimes forge instruments of husbandry with a hammer upon an anvil." The implements of husbandry were ploughs, scythes, sickles, spades, axes, pruning-hooks, forks, and flails; they had also carts and waggons.

Their gardens and orchards produce figs, grapes nuts, almonds, pears, and apples. The monks ornamented the lands in the vicinity of their convents with shrubs and herbs, as well as fruit trees. The management of bees was also an object of importance.

CHAPTER IV.

ARTS, MANNERS, CUSTOMS.

Few improvements in the arts were made by the Saxons in England, after the first invasion of the Danes. The Saxon husbandmen ploughed, sowed, and harrowed their land; but their ploughs were very slight, and had but one handle. They were unacquainted with water-mills, and had no better way of grinding their corn than with hand-mills, which were usually turned by women. Masonry was restored; and some arts connected with it introduced by St. Wilfrid and St. Bennet Biscop. St. Bennet brought with him from Gaul masons and glass-makers, who instructed the English in the art of making glass, which, although it had been practised by the ancient Britons, had been, during the Saxon invasion, entirely laid aside. They were not unacquainted with the art of working in gold, silver, iron, lead, and jewels. A beautiful jewel, of exquisite workmanship, was found at Ethelingley, in Somersetshire, where Alfred the Great concealed himself in his distress, and where he sometimes resided in his prosperity; which was certainly worn by that prince, and bears this inscription: "Alfred ordered me to be made."

Artificers in iron were highly regarded in those warlike times; because they fabricated swords and other offensive arms, as well as armour. The chief smith was an officer of considerable dignity in the courts of the Anglo-Saxons and Welsh kings. He sat next the domestic chaplain, and was entitled to a draught of every liquor brought into the hall. But the most skilful artificers were those attached to the monasteries; and there also were to be found proficients in the superior departments of art, such as architects, illuminators, and workers in gold and silver, as well as carpenters, smiths, shoe-makers, millers, bakers, &c. Females, also, of the highest rank, did not disdain the labours of the distaff, the loom, and the needle. The daughters of Edward the Elder were taught to occupy themselves in this manner; and Alfred, in his will, terms the female part of his family "the spindle side."

The musical instruments of the Saxons were, besides bells, the trumpet, the flute, the drum, the cymbal, the rota, or viol, the lyre, and the harp. They also were acquainted with the organ. William of Malmsbury describes an organ as existing in his own church, on which was inscribed that it had been presented by St. Dunstan. The harp, and some of the popular music, were probably borrowed from the Irish, among whom the art appears to have flourished at a very remote period. So famous was their church music, that the daughter of Pepin of France, in the seventh century, sent to Ireland for persons to instruct the nuns of the Abbey of Nivelle in the Gregorian chant.

With regard to the interior of their houses, the Saxons of the upper classes appear to have had them very splendidly furnished. The needle-work, for which the English ladies were so famous, appeared here to much advantage. Their walls were hung with richly embroidered silks, with gold or colours. The common form of the seat was like our camp stool, although chairs with backs were used: some were highly ornamented with gold or silver, and some of their tables were also of the same costly materials. In the illuminated manuscripts we perceive tables covered with cloths, and furnished with knives, spoons, cups, bowls, dishes, and drinking horns, but no forks. Glass vessels were rarities in the early periods, but became more common towards the Norman conquest. Some of their bedsteads appear to have had a roof like that of a house, and were furnished with curtains, bed clothes, sheets, and coverlids, some of which were skins of animals. The roast meats were brought to table on spits, the guests cutting off such portions as they chose.

The Saxon costume appears to have been, for male attire, a linen shirt, above which was worn a tunic of linen or woollen, descending to the knee; it was open at the neck, had long sleeves, and was generally confined by a girdle or belt round the waist. Over this was worn a short cloak, fastened by a brooch; linen drawers and stockings of wool, or linen bandaged from the ankle to the knee, were worn by the richer orders, and shoes of some kind by all. The male ornaments consisted of bracelets, brooches, and fibulæ of gold, silver

and ivory, with chains, crosses, and rings, sometimes beautifully enamelled. The hair was worn long, parted down the middle; the beard was ample, and generally forked: tatooing, or puncturing the skin, was also practised. The female costume seems to have consisted of a long robe with loose sleeves, worn over a closer-fitting one; shoes similar to those of the male sex, and a head-dress of linen or silk. The mantle was a part of the dress of the richer classes, who likewise paid great attention to the dressing and ornamenting of their hair; they also used cosmetics. Gloves were rarely worn, but cuffs and ribbons were more common. Persons of substance had four meals a-day, a great portion of which consisted of flesh-meat, particularly pork, which they seasoned with herbs and vegetables. The use of warm baths was general; when a stranger entered a house, water was brought to wash his hands, and warm water for bathing his feet.

The Anglo-Saxons were in general tall, robust, active, and handsome; inured to fatigue, and intrepid in danger; extremely hospitable, but addicted to gluttony and intemperance, and so attached to the detestable vice of gaming, that after losing their estates and effects, they often played away their persons and liberties. When a young nobleman applied to a father for permission to pay his addresses to his daughter, the parent generally made trial of his temper, by playing with him at dice and chess, before he gave him an answer. The game of backgammon was invented in Wales during this period, and derives its name from two Welch words, back and cammon, signifying a little battle.

Their childhood and youth were spent in running, leaping, climbing, swimming, wrestling, boxing, and such exercises as hardened both soul and body, fitting them for the toils and dangers of war; but at the same time making them rude and unpolished in their address, and haughty in their deportment.

Admirers of valour and intrepidity, above all other qualities, they were very anxious to discover whether their sons would be possessed of them, and had various methods of putting their courage to the trial, even in their infancy. Of these the following were the most common: upon a certain day, the family and friends

oeing assembled, the father placed his infant son on the slanting side of the roof of his house, and there left him. If the child began to cry, the spectators were dejected, and prognosticated that he would be a coward; but if he clung boldly to the thatch, and discovered no marks of fear, they were transported with joy, and pronounced that he would prove a great warrior.

As to their burials, it was so much the custom to lay the bodies on the surface of the ground, that a law was passed to oblige them to deposit them in graves of a proper depth. The house in which a dead body lay was a scene of continued festivity, singing, dancing, and all kinds of diversion. This custom had prevailed in Pagan times, and though discouraged by the ministers of religion, was too agreeable to their fondness for feasting and riot to be speedily laid aside. The custom of ringing the passing-bell at the death of any person originated in the Anglo-Saxon period. Bede relates, that at the death of the abbess of St. Hilda, one of the religious of a distant convent heard the well-known sound of that bell, which called them to prayers when any of them departed this life, and the superior of the convent was no sooner informed of this, than she called the sisters to the church, to pray and sing a requiem for the deceased abbess.

The Teutonic or Anglo-Saxon language is so ancient, that it is impossible to trace its origin. Some of the learned have discovered much affinity between it and the Greek, both in its radical words and general structure. With this view they have collected a number of words, the names of the most necessary things, and of similar sound and meaning in both languages. The resemblance of the Anglo-Saxon and modern English is great, and many words of the former are still in use, though changed in their meaning or spelling.

BOOK III.

CHAPTER I.

MILITARY HISTORY OF THE DANES.

1017.—CANUTE, although in possession of the English crown, found himself obliged at first to make many concessions; but as his power grew stronger, and his title became more secure, he gradually resumed the grants he had made. He put to death several English noblemen, among whom was the infamous Edric, who met a deserved fate for his treachery and other crimes; nor was he less severe upon the subordinate ranks, levying considerable sums upon them, for the support of his army. His power being thus strengthened by the weakness of all who had formerly possessed wealth or authority, he began to shew the merciful side of his character. His first step to reconcile the English, was to send back as many of his followers as he could spare. He made no distinction in the administration of justice between his English and Danish subjects; and in order to unite the two nations still more closely, he married Emma, widow of Ethelred, and sister to Richard, Duke of Normandy.

Canute then made a voyage to Denmark, which was attacked by the king of Sweden. (A.D. 1025.) In this expedition, Godwin, an English earl, was distinguished by his valour. In another voyage he attacked Norway, and annexed that kingdom to his dominions, and thus became the most warlike and potent prince in Europe, being at once king of England, Denmark, and Norway. His last military preparations were made against Duncan, king of Scotland, who was in possession of Cumberland, and refused to hold it as vassal of Canute, alleging that that prince had not obtained it by hereditary descent; but before the armies met, Duncan and Canute were reconciled, and the ancient conditions performed. The valour of the former part of his life, and the piety of the latter, were topics that filled the mouths

of his courtiers with praise and flattery: they even pretended to believe his power uncontrollable, and that all things would obey him. Canute, sensible of their adulation, is said to have reproved them in the following manner. He ordered his chair to be put on the seashore while the tide was coming in, and commanded it to retire; he feigned to sit for some time in expectation of submission, till the waves began to surround him, when, turning to his adulators, he observed that the title of Lord and Master of the Universe belonged only to Him whom both earth and sea obeyed.

Canute died at Shaftesbury, in the nineteenth year of his reign, leaving three sons, Swęyn, Harold, and Hardicanute. Sweyn was crowned king of Norway, Hardicanute of Denmark, and Harold succeeded to the throne of England.

1036.—Harold, surnamed Harefoot, from his swiftness in running, met with no small opposition from his brother Hardicanute; but by the intervention of the nobles, a wittenagamot was held at Oxford, in which it was agreed, that Harold should have London, and all the provinces north of the Thames, while the possession of the southern should be given to Hardicanute; and until that prince should appear in person, Emma, his mother, was to govern in his stead. But this agreement was of short duration; for Emma having, at the request of Harold, brought over her two sons, Edward and Alfred, sent the latter towards London, on the road to which he was treacherously attacked: six hundred of his followers were slain, and he himself was taken prisoner, hurried away to Harold, and thence to the isle of Ely, where his eyes were put out. The unhappy prince lingered some days, and then expired, either by the hand of an assassin, or the violence of his sufferings. Emma and Edward, apprized of his fate, fled to the Continent, and Harold took possession of the whole kingdom; but when he ordered Egelnorth, archbishop of Canterbury, to perform the ceremony of his coronation, that prelate, placing the insignia of royalty upon the altar, boldly replied, "There are the crown and sceptre which Canute intrusted to my care; to you I neither give nor refuse them: you may take them if you please, but I strictly forbid any

of my brethren to usurp an office which is the prerogative of my see." He appears, however, subsequently to have removed the primate's objections, and to have been crowned with the usual solemnities. Harold died in 1040, little regretted by his subjects, leaving the crown to his brother Hardicanute.

1040.—The ceremony of the coronation of Hardicanute was scarcely over, when he gave the first specimen of the badness of his disposition, in his impotent insults upon the body of his brother, which he ordered to be dug up, and thrown into the Thames. His next act was the imposition of a grievous tax for the payment of his navy, which was the more intolerable, as the nation was then threatened with a famine. The evils of his reign, however soon closed with his death, which was occasioned by excess, committed at the marriage of a Danish lord, celebrated at Lambeth. His body was interred near that of his father at Winchester.

1042.—THE SAXON LINE RESTORED.

EDWARD THE CONFESSOR.—Edward the Confessor, son of king Ethelred, by his second wife Emma, ascended the throne, to which he seemed called by his virtues. The English were so overjoyed at finding the ancient race of their kings restored, that the warmth of their raptures was at first attended with some violences against the Danes; but Edward, by the mildness of his manners, soon composed these differences, and the distinction between the two nations gradually disappeared. At his accession he found three chieftains, Godwin, Siward, and Leofrick, so powerful, that his only security lay in their mutual jealousies and discordant interests; and it was to this mistrust for each other he was principally indebted for the zeal they shewed for his advancement to the throne. By their aid the Danish families, whose former tyranny deserved punishment, or whose power was to be dreaded, were expelled the kingdom. Among these may be reckoned Gelinda, niece of Canute, who was sent to Denmark, that she might not favour the invasion threatened by the king of Norway. The queen-mother, who had many crimes laid to her charge

and who had always shewn her predilection for the Danes, and dislike to the king, was stript of her treasures and confined to the city of Winchester, where she died. In the meantime the king of Denmark made an irruption into Norway, which obliged Sweyn to lay aside his expedition against Edward. In 1044 some Danish pirates landed at Sandwich, but the vigilance of Godwin, Leofrick, and Siward, obliged them to leave the island, and they never afterwards returned.

As the kingdom now enjoyed a profound peace, his nobles and subjects importuned Edward to take a royal consort, and he fixed upon Edgitha, daughter of earl Godwin, to whose assistance he in a great measure owed his throne. Edgitha was a lady of mild and virtuous manners, highly accomplished, and of great beauty. Edward made choice of her in the hope that he could easily engage her to become his wife, upon the condition of living together in a state of virginity, as he had long before consecrated himself to God by a vow of perpetual chastity. She readily consented to his pious design; and though married, they lived together as brother and sister. The year 1053 is remarkable for the death of the powerful earl Godwin. It is related, that while he was with the king at a feast, observing a domestic who had slipped with one foot, support himself with the other, he said, "See how one brother assists another!" "Yes," replied the king, regarding Godwin with a severe countenance, "and if Alfred were now alive, he might also assist me." Godwin, who felt that he was suspected of contriving the death of Alfred, protested his innocence, and wished that if he were guilty, he might not swallow the morsel of meat which he was putting into his mouth. No sooner did he attempt it, than, sticking in his throat, it suffocated him, and he fell down dead.

In 1054 Edward sent Siward against Macbeth, who had usurped the throne of Scotland. Siward entirely defeated him, and restored Malcolm to his kingdom; not, however, without the loss of many brave men, among whom was his own son. Upon being informed of his death, he inquired whether he had received his wound before or behind; and upon being told he fell fighting valiantly, and was wounded before, he exclaim-

ed, "I could not wish a more glorious death for myself or my son!"

The Welsh had made inroads into England, under their king, Griffin, and had plundered Hereford. Harold, son of Godwin, was sent against them, defeated them, and having burned their ships, and reduced their army to the utmost extremity, he compelled them to surrender, pay tribute, and entirely renounce their king.

Edward had now reigned twenty-four years, when he was seized with a fatal sickness, during the dedication of the church of Westminster. In his last moments, seeing his nobles all bathed in tears around his bed, and his queen weeping and sobbing vehemently, he said to her tenderly: "Weep not, my dear daughter, I shall not die, but live." Then commending her to her brother Harold, he calmly expired on the 5th of January, 1066, in the 64th year of his age. The title of confessor was bestowed upon him, about a century after his death, by a bull of canonization, issued by Pope Alexander the Third.

1066.—HAROLD.—As Edward died without issue, the crown was claimed by three competitors: Edgar Etheling asserted his right, as being grandson to Edmund Ironside; William, Duke of Normandy, claimed the throne, on the ground of an alleged promise from king Edward, and his affinity by his mother, Emma; and Harold, son of earl Godwin, who could shew no right of descent, alleged the intention of the late king in his favour. The citizens of London, who were fond of an elective monarchy, seconded his claims: many of the clergy also adopted his cause; and the body of the people, whose favourite he was, eagerly supported his pretensions. Taking, therefore, advantage of his power, he caused himself to be proclaimed king.

The first acts of his reign shewed him not unworthy of their esteem; he administered justice with impartiality, and the disturbers of the public peace, whom the lenity of Edward had suffered to exist, were sought out and punished. But neither his valour nor his justice could secure him from the effects of an ill-grounded title. His first enemy was his own brother, Tosti, who had long borne an implacable hatred to him for the part he took in his punishment, when governor of Northum-

bria. Encouraged and assisted by William of Normandy, Tosti made a descent upon the coast. Having failed here, he sailed to Norway, and procuring reinforcements, landed at the mouth of the Humber, defeated the earls of Mercia and Northumberland, and took the city of York. Harold lost no time ; he overtook the enemy at Stamford, and immediately gave him battle, notwithstanding his advantageous position, and after a bloody conflict entirely defeated him. Tosti and Harfargor, king of Norway, were among the slain. Harold had not long enjoyed this triumph, when news arrived of a fresh invasion by William, Duke of Normandy, who landed at Hastings in 1066, with an army of 60,000 veteran troops. William, as he came on shore, happening to stumble and fall, cried out with great presence of mind, "England is mine: I take possession of it with both hands." William's arrival was accompanied with some of those fortunate circumstances which usually attend conquest. Harold, who had expected him all the summer, was then absent in the north, where he had not only weakened his forces by the bloody encounters just mentioned, but also disgusted his army by retaining the Norwegian spoils. Without allowing time to assemble his troops, or consult in so momentous an affair, with a slender force he hastened to meet the Normans. The day before the battle, William sent a challenge to Harold, to decide the quarrel between them by single combat; but Harold refused, saying, he would leave it to the God of armies to determine. The next day both parties prepared for battle. The English are said to have passed the night in singing and drinking; the Normans, in confessing their sins and receiving the holy communion. The day being come which was to decide the fate of the nation, the English were drawn up in a close body, armed with their battle-axes and shields. Near the standard stood the king with his two brothers, that the soldiers, seeing the share he took in the common danger, might be emboldened by his example. The centre of the Normans was composed of infantry, flanked on each side by their cavalry. The fight began by a shower of arrows from the Norman cross-bows, a weapon unknown to the English, and which, acting at a great distance, surprised and galled

them exceedingly. But soon coming to close fight, the English with their bills hewed down the enemy with dreadful slaughter; while their own ranks were so close and firm that no charges of the Norman horse could break them, though led by the duke in person, who had three horses killed under him in the attempt. Perceiving their impenetrable bravery, he had recourse to stratagem; he pretended to give way, upon which the English, led on by their impetuous courage, began a pursuit which disordered their ranks. Then the Normans, returning to the charge with increased fury, broke their ranks, and drove them to a rising ground. In this extremity Harold was seen flying from rank to rank, rallying and inspiring his men with fresh vigour; and though he had toiled all day on foot in the front of his Kentish men, he still shewed unabated force and courage. Again, therefore, victory seemed to declare against the Normans, and they fell in great numbers. Thus raged the battle with alternate success, from nine in the morning till dark, when Harold, making a furious onset at the head of his troops, was shot in the brain by an arrow; and his two brothers, fighting valiantly by his side, shared his fate. He fell, sword in hand, among heaps of slain, and, after the battle, could scarcely be distinguished among the dead. The English no sooner saw the king fall, than, losing all courage, they fled on every side, and were pursued, with great slaughter, by the Normans. About 15,000 Normans were slain, but a much greater number of the English fell on that fatal day. Thus ended the empire of the Saxons in this nation, after it had continued more than six hundred years. And here we may pause to observe, that the English were, in fact, the cause of their own disgrace and miseries; for besides the late mismanagement of Harold, the nobility were split into factions, addicted to gluttony, and a dissolute life, and neglectful of the duties of religion; whilst the lower classes of society spent their time in rioting and drunkenness, and all those vices which enervate both body and mind. Even among the clergy and religious were some who, neglecting the duties of their calling and the rules of their order, increased the evil by the scandal they gave.

CHAPTER II.

ECCLESIASTICAL AFFAIRS, LAWS, &c.

CANUTE was most munificent to the clergy and religious. He founded many noble monasteries, and in order to fulfil a vow he had made, he went on a pilgrimage to Rome, where he was kindly received by Pope John, who remitted in favour of the English and Danes the taxes usually paid by strangers that travelled to Rome. (A. D. 1027.) He also procured several grievances to be redressed concerning the pall, that was usually sent to the archbishops; the officers of the Pope having been very exorbitant in their fees upon such occasions.

The reign of Edward the Confessor was highly favourable to the cause of religion. He delighted much in religious foundations; but never, under pretence of raising those structures, exacted taxes from his people: the expenses were defrayed from his own patrimony; and his great alms and pious liberality shewed what could be done by economy and the retrenchment of superfluities. During his exile in Normandy, he had made a vow, that if Providence should free him from his troubles, he would go on pilgrimage to Rome: this vow he now was anxious to perform; but on stating his intention to his council, they were unanimously of opinion that his absence would be attended with fatal effects to the peace and welfare of his kingdom. The matter was referred to Pope Leo the Eleventh, who, judging it would be highly imprudent in the king to leave England, freed him from his vow, on condition that he should distribute in alms a sum equivalent to the expenses of his journey, and also that he should build a monastery or church in honour of St. Peter. Immediately on receiving the Pope's brief, the holy king commenced the work, and, fixing upon a spot to the west of London, erected that noble structure Westminster Abbey, which, when finished, was solemnly dedicated to St. Peter, on the feast of St. John the Evangelist, in 1065, a few days before his death.

The laws of Edward the Confessor have long had a great and a deserved reputation. They were the fruit

of his wisdom and anxious wishes for the good of his people. Under the Saxon heptarchy, Ethelbert, the first Christian king of Kent, published laws for his kingdom in 602. Ina, in 693, did the same for Wessex; and Offa, about 790, for the Mercians. From these laws, Alfred formed a new and short code in 877. Athelstan, Edmund, Edgar, and Ethelred, also made laws, and Canute added others; but to Edward the Confessor we are chiefly indebted for reducing the whole of these laws into one body, with amendments and additions; which code from this time became common to all England, under the title of Edward the Confessor's laws, to distinguish them from those of William the Conqueror. They are still in force as part of the common law of England, unless where altered by later statutes. They consisted of short positive precepts, in which the judges kept to the letter, and suffered them not to be reasoned away by advocates or pleaders. Punishments were mild, few crimes were capital, and fines and penalties certain, and not left to the will and pleasure of the judge. The public peace and tranquillity were maintained, and private property respected, not by the rigour of the laws, but by the diligence and impartiality with which they were administered.

The trials by ordeal still continued in force, though seldom resorted to: instead of plunging the arm into boiling water, the person accused was sometimes thrown into a pond or river; if he floated without any action of swimming he was adjudged guilty. These methods of trial, the relics of heathenish superstition, were frequently condemned by the church as tempting God's providence, and contrary to his law and the precept of charity. The first legal prohibition of them in England, was in the third year of Henry III. by act of Parliament, or order in council.

CHARACTER, MANNERS, AND CUSTOMS OF THE DANES.

The Danes, who during this period constituted so great a portion of the inhabitants, were as bold and intrepid as the Saxons, and even surpassed them in fierceness and cruelty. In those ages the people of Scandinavia, comprehending Sweden, Denmark, and Norway

breathed nothing but war, and were instigated by a most astonishing spirit of enterprise and adventure. By their numerous fleets they rode triumphant in all the European seas; carrying terror and desolation along the coasts of Germany, France, Spain, Italy, England, Scotland, and Ireland. The inhabitants of these countries, especially of the sea-coasts, lived in continual apprehension of these dreadful enemies, and made it their daily prayer to be preserved from their destructive visits. Born in fleets or camps, the first objects on which they fixed their eyes, were storms, arms, battles, blood, and plunder. Amidst these they were brought up, till, by degrees, the most dreadful objects became familiar to them. As soon as they could lisp, they were taught to sing the plundering exploits and victories of their ancestors. Their memories were stored with nothing but tales of warlike and piratical expeditions, of cities reduced to ashes, and provinces desolated. It was one of their martial, though boastful proverbs, that a Dane who wished to be accounted brave, should attack two enemies, stand firm against three, retire only one pace from four, and flee from no fewer than five.

The costume of the Danes, during the 9th and 10th centuries, appears to have nearly resembled that of the Saxons of the same period. Arnold, of Hubeck, describes them as wearing sailors' garments, befitting men who lived mostly on the sea, but, on their establishment in England, they wore clothes of scarlet, purple and fine linen, often changing their dress, and taking great care of their hair, which was considered as one of their greatest ornaments. Their military dress was the same as that of the Normans; both more heavily armed than the Saxons, who, however, adopted the superior defences of their adversaries. The population at this period, is supposed to have amounted to about 2,000,000; and, with very few exceptions, all the towns, and even the villages and hamlets now existing, appear to have sprung up during the Saxon times, which their names and historical evidence clearly prove. It is said, that the number of parish churches in England, about the time of the Norman conquest, was 45,011. Thus, the augmentation of the population of the

country, vast as it has been, has merely found room, during so many ages, to collect and arrange itself around the old centres.

BOOK IV.

CHAPTER I.

NORMAN LINE.

MILITARY HISTORY.

From William the Conqueror to the Restoration of the Saxon Line by Henry II., including a period of about eighty-eight Years.

A. D. 1066. Nothing could exceed the astonishment of the English when made acquainted with the battle of Hastings. William's approach to the capital increased the alarm, and the divisions which began to appear in their councils. The superior clergy inclined to his side, and the bull of the Pope, from whom he had received a consecrated banner, was now openly offered as a reason for general submission. Other causes rendered it difficult for the people to defend their liberties in this critical emergency. The body of the nation had lost its ancient pride and independent spirit by their recent subjection to the Danes, and deemed the disgrace and humiliation of admitting the pretension of William less to be dreaded than the bloodshed and rapine of war. A repulse which a party of Londoners received from five hundred Norman horse, renewed the terror of the great defeat at Hastings; the easy submission of Kent was an additional discouragement; and the burning of Southwark made the citizens of London dread a like fate for their capital. The attention, therefore, of all was now turned to their own preservation. The bishops, the nobles, with Edgar Atheling, the natural heir to the crown, waited upon the Conqueror, and declared their intention of yielding to his authority. William was accordingly crowned in West-

minster Abbey, by Eldred, Archbishop of York. The coronation oath was much the same as that taken by the Saxon kings, viz. that he would protect the holy church and its governors; that he would rule the people subject to him prudently and justly, would ordain and keep just laws, and wholly forbid all rapines and unjust judgments. William had till now been called "the Bastard;" from this period he took the name of "Conqueror," a term which, in the language of those times, did not necessarily include the idea of conquest, but was employed indifferently to designate any one who had asserted and obtained his right.

His first measures were wisely adapted to allay the animosity and acquire the esteem of the English: he confirmed the liberties and immunities of London, and of all the other cities of the empire. In his whole administration he bore the resemblance of the lawful prince, and not of the conqueror; so that the English began to flatter themselves that they had only changed the succession of their sovereign, without injury to their former government. But William, notwithstanding this seeming confidence and friendship which he expressed for his English subjects, took care to place all real power in the hands of the Normans. He every where disarmed the inhabitants; built fortresses in all the principal cities, where he quartered Norman soldiers, and bestowed the forfeited estates upon his captains.

Having thus firmly established his power, he ventured to visit his native country, within six months after he had left it. He was careful, however, to take with him the most powerful among the clergy and nobles, as well to secure himself from any attempts which might be made during his absence, as to show, by the quality and magnificence of his attendants, the greatness and importance of the conquest he had achieved. Pictaviensis, the historian, speaking of the riches brought from England, says, "that country greatly excels the Gauls in the abundance of its precious metals. If it be termed for its fertility the granary of Ceres, it may be called the treasury of Arabia for its riches. The English women excel all others in the use of the needle, and embroidery of gold and silver: the men in all sorts of elegant workmanship. Merchants import

among them the most noble productions of foreign manufactures, and the best artists of Germany reside there. Indeed, the superiority of English manufactures was so generally acknowledged, that delicate articles in embroidery, or the precious metals, were called, by the continental nations, "English work."

In the mean time the English were so grievously oppressed by the Norman barons, that, concerting with the Earl of Boulogne, they attacked Dover Castle: but a panic seized the soldiers, the Earl of Boulogne was obliged to seek his safety in flight, most of his men were taken, and the English only escaped through their more perfect knowledge of the roads. About the same time, Edric, surnamed the Outlaw, with the assistance of the Welch, ravaged several parts of Herefordshire. These transactions hastened the return of the king, and he came with the secret determination to crush by severity a people he could not gain by lenity. Several noblemen, foreseeing the storm, withdrew, with Edgar Atheling and his sister, into Scotland, to the court of Malcolm, who shortly after married that princess. By her offspring the Saxon line was restored to the throne of England in the person of Henry the Second.

Insurrections now appeared in every part of the country, which answered no other purpose but to rivet more firmly the chains of the English. Acquainted with the restless spirit of the Northumbrians, who had begun the revolt, and determined to incapacitate them from ever more molesting him, William issued orders for laying waste that fertile country. Their houses were reduced to ashes, the cattle seized and driven away, the implements of husbandry were destroyed, and the inhabitants compelled either to seek subsistence in the northern parts of Scotland, or to perish miserably in the woods from cold and hunger. The lives of a hundred thousand persons are computed to have been sacrificed to this barbarous policy. But William was now determined to proceed to extremities with the English, and to reduce them to a condition in which they should be no longer formidable to him. Ancient and honourable families were reduced to beggary; the nobles were treated with contempt, and their estates

divided among the new comers. He even entertained the difficult project of totally abolishing the language of the country. He ordered the English youth to be instructed in the Norman language; the pleadings in the supreme courts of judicature, deeds, and laws, were in the same language; no other was used at court, and it became the language of all fashionable societies. To this attempt of the Conqueror, and to the foreign dominions annexed for so long a time to the crown of England, we chiefly owe the mixture of French in our language. In short, nothing was left untried that had a tendency to obliterate every trace of the Anglo-Saxon constitution.

Having crushed different conspiracies, and, by punishing severely the malcontents, secured his dominions, William now expected to reap the fruits of his toils, and hoped that the remainder of his reign would be crowned with peace and prosperity. But how vain is all human wisdom; he found enemies where he least expected them, and such as embittered all the latter part of his life. He had three sons, Robert, William, and Henry. Robert, the eldest, was a prince of great bravery, but imprudent. William and Henry, more insinuating in their manners, had gained the affection of their father, of which Robert had been heard to express his jealousy. A mind so prepared for resentment soon found or made a cause for an open rupture. The two princes were one day in sport together, and wantonly threw water over their elder brother, as he passed. Robert, all alive to suspicion, immediately construed this into a studied indignity, and drawing his sword, ran up stairs to take his revenge. The whole castle was quickly in a tumult; and it was with some difficulty that the king himself could appease it; but he could not extinguish the animosity which ever after prevailed in his family. Robert, that very night, withdrew to Rouen, hoping to surprise the castle; but he was defeated in his design by the governor. The popular character of the prince, however, and a sympathy of manners, engaged all the young nobility in his favour, and this unnatural contest continued for several years, during which several battles were fought. In one of these Robert encountered his father, without knowing him, and not only wounded him in the arm, but dismounted

him. William immediately called for a horse, when Robert, hearing his father's voice, instantly alighted, and falling at his feet, begged pardon for what he had done; then, mounting him upon his own horse, he led him in safety out of the throng. This uncommon occurrence brought both parties to an accommodation; and peace being concluded, Robert returned to England with his father, but could never entirely regain his favour.

William had scarcely put an end to these disturbances, when he felt a very severe blow in the death of Matilda, his queen; and soon after he received intelligence of a general insurrection in Maine. Upon his arrival on the Continent, he found the insurgents had been secretly assisted by the King of France, and his displeasure was not a little increased by the account of the sarcasm which that monarch had thrown out against him. William, who was become very corpulent, had been detained in bed some days by sickness; and Philip was heard to say, "That his brother of England was gone to lie in of his great belly, and he feared he should be obliged to put up lights at his uprising;" alluding to the custom of France in those days. This so provoked William, that he sent him word, "That as soon as he was risen, he would save the charge of lights by going himself to light a thousand fires in the very bowels of France." In order to perform his promise, he levied a strong army, and entering the Isle of France, destroyed and burned villages and houses without opposition, not even sparing the churches and monasteries. But, as a visible punishment for his ungovernable revenge and cruelty, his horse chancing to place his foot upon some hot ashes, plunged so violently, that his rider was thrown with his belly upon the pommel of the saddle, and bruised to such a degree, that he suffered a relapse, of which he shortly died, near Rouen, on the 9th of September, 1087.

William must certainly be reckoned among the greatest captains of his age. Impetuous and quick in his enterprizes, he was cool, deliberate, and indefatigable in times of danger. His height of body and strength were, according to the Norman writers, most astonishing; it is said that sitting on horseback he could draw the string of a bow that no other man could

hand on foot. He was extremely fond of hunting; and though possessed of no fewer than sixty-eight forests and chases, he scrupled not to expel the unfortunate inhabitants of a large tract of more than thirty square miles, which he converted into a wilderness for his deer; burning houses, churches, and monasteries. In his conversation he was seldom affable, except to Lanfranc, Archbishop of Canterbury, with whom he was ever gentle and mild. In fine, he rendered himself odious to many, formidable to all; but by his policy he transmitted his power to his posterity, who still occupy the throne.

A. D: 1087. WILLIAM II.

William, surnamed Rufus, or Red, from the colour of his hair, was appointed by the king's will his successor; whilst the eldest son, Robert, was to have Normandy. The Norman barons, however, were by no means pleased with this arrangement; they wished for a union of the whole, and regarded Robert as the rightful heir. A powerful conspiracy was formed, at the head of which was Otho, the late king's brother. Otho wrote to Robert, urging him to use the utmost despatch. Robert gave the most positive assurances of a speedy arrival; but his indolence and love of pleasure were greater than his ambition. Instead of employing the money sent him in levies to support his friends, he lavished it upon unworthy favourites, procrastinating his departure till the opportunity was lost. William, on the other side, exerted himself with amazing activity, so that the conspirators, despairing of any assistance from Robert, threw themselves upon the king's mercy, who spared their lives, but confiscated their property and banished them from the kingdom.

Normandy at this period presented nothing but a scene of confusion. The barons had expelled the troops which William the Conqueror had put into their castles, and levying men, made war on each other, which the feeble government of Robert, who was immersed in his pleasures, was unable to resist. William, who never lost sight of the possession of Normandy, seized the opportunity, and by bribes, judiciously distributed, obtained possession of almost every fortress on the right

bank of the Seine. He then crossed with a numerous army into Normandy; but the barons effected a reconciliation, and a treaty of peace between the two brothers was concluded; one of the articles of which was, that if either of the brothers should die without issue, the survivor should inherit all his dominions. It was in vain that Henry remonstrated against this act of injustice, and even took up arms to defend a small fortress on the coast of Normandy against their united assaults; he was obliged to surrender, and wandered about for some years in the greatest distress.

At the siege of this fortress, two circumstances took place that mark the character of the brothers. As William was riding out at some distance from the camp, he perceived two horsemen from the castle coming to attack him. At the first encounter the king's horse was killed, and overthrew its rider. His antagonist with uplifted arm immediately ran to despatch him, when William cried out, "Hold, villain, I am the King of England." The two soldiers seized with awe, assisted him to rise, and presented one of their horses. The king, springing upon the saddle, asked who was the man that dismounted him? upon which the soldier boldly showed himself, when the king ordered him to follow, and took him into his service. In the mean time, Henry, being much distressed for want of water, sent a messenger to Robert, desiring that they would endeavour to subdue him by force of arms, rather than by thirst. Robert immediately gave him liberty to supply himself; and when William blamed his generosity, he replied, "What, shall I suffer my brother to die of thirst? where shall we find another, when he is gone?

In the mean time, Malcolm of Scotland, taking advantage of William's absence, crossed the borders, and laid waste the northern counties. William, immediately after his reconciliation with Robert, was determined to revenge the aggression. He assembled an army, with which he penetrated into Scotland; but on Malcolm's submitting to do homage for his kingdom, peace was concluded. But a new quarrel arose between the two kings; Malcolm again with his troops burst into Northumberland, where he was totally defeated, himself and his son being left dead on the field of battle. What pretext

William made for not observing the treaty with Robert we are not informed; but war again being renewed, William had recourse to his usual method of bribery, and his mode of raising the money strongly marks his character. When the men he had demanded from England were drawn up on the shore, ready to embark, each soldier was ordered to pay ten shillings to the king, and to return to his home.

But these petty broils were now to be eclipsed by the commencement of the most extraordinary enterprise recorded in the annals of nations—the Crusades. Peter the Hermit, a native of Amiens, of a most enterprising mind and warm imagination, had made a pilgrimage to the holy sepulchre at Jerusalem. He could not behold without indignation the cruel manner in which the Christians were treated by the Turks; and, upon his return, formed the bold design of freeing the Holy Land from the Mahometan yoke. He proposed his views to the Pope, who permitted, rather than assisted, the design. Peter now resolved to preach the crusade; he travelled through all Christendom, exciting the princes and people to the recovery of the Holy Land; and such was the effect of the enthusiasm, that men of all ranks flew to arms. Robert, eager for glory, and prone to change, was one of the foremost in the undertaking; and in order to supply money to defray the necessary expenses, mortgaged his dukedom to William. The sum, which amounted to no more than 10,000 marks, was readily promised by William; and the means he took to provide it were, by laying a heavy contribution upon the bishops, abbots, &c., who were even obliged to break in pieces their gold and silver plate, and the ornaments of their churches, to furnish the sum required. In this manner was Normandy again united to England; and from this union arose those numerous wars with France, which for centuries depopulated both countries.

The Normans received William without opposition; but the people of La Maine chose Helie, the nephew of their late earl, and by their aid Helie surprised the city of Mons. Upon this news being brought to William, while hunting in the New Forest, he could hardly restrain his rage; but exclaiming, "Let those who love

me, follow," he rode immediately to the sea-shore, and entered the first vessel he found. The weather being extremely boisterous, the master remonstrated upon the danger of the passage; but William cried out, "Be silent and obey: kings are never drowned." Upon his landing, he advanced with such rapidity, that Helie with difficulty saved himself by flight. The king ravaged the country, and then returned to England.

An accident, however, now put an end to all William's ambitious projects; while hunting in the New Forest, Hampshire, to form which so many towns and villages had been depopulated, he was killed by an arrow, discharged, as it was said, by Sir Walter Tyrrel at a deer, which, glancing from a tree, struck the monarch to the heart. Sir Walter, terrified at the accident, clapped spurs to his horse, embarked for France, and joined the crusade. As Sir Walter, however, denied the charge, and on his return made oath that he had not on that day entered the forest, it is more probable the king met his death by treason. The body was conveyed in a cart to Winchester, and privately interred the next morning in the cathedral. William in his person was short and corpulent, light hair, and florid complexion. In public he assumed a haughty and fierce demeanour; in private he was gay, witty, and licentious, seeking to lessen the odium of his impiety, rapacity, and tyranny, by making them subjects of laughter.

1100. HENRY I.

Upon the sudden death of William Rufus, Henry, surnamed Beauclerc, his younger brother, found an easy access to the throne, in consequence of Robert's absence with the Crusaders. Hastening to Winchester, he secured the royal treasures, and the barons and people immediately submitted to a claim they were unable to resist. Henry was no sooner seated on the throne, than he expelled from court all the ministers of his brother's debauchery; and reflecting that the English still preserved the memory of their Saxon kings with gratitude, he determined to strengthen his power by marrying Matilda, niece of Edgar Atheling. This princess had been bred up in a convent, and wore the veil, which was not unusual with ladies in those times, to preserve

themselves from the brutal ferocity of the Normans. The marriage was solemnized, to the great joy of the whole nation, on the feast of St. Michael.

At this juncture Robert returned from the crusade, and after taking possession of his mortgaged estates, laid claim to the crown of England. Solely bent, however, upon his pleasure, and averse from business, he was easily induced to resign all his pretension, upon payment of a stipulated sum of money. This disposition soon brought upon him fresh troubles; he suffered himself to be continually pillaged by his servants, whilst his subjects, under the command of petty and rapacious tyrants, were plundered without mercy, till the whole country became a scene of violence and depredation. In this miserable exigence the Normans had recourse to Henry, who very readily promised to redress their grievances. Accordingly he landed in Normandy with a strong army, and in a battle which ensued, overthrew Robert's forces, and took him prisoner. Normandy was quickly reduced, and Robert never after recovered his liberty. He died, twenty years after his capture, at Cardiffe Castle, Glamorganshire. Henry was next engaged in a bloody, though successful, war with France. During one of the battles, the king was engaged, nand to hand, with one Crispin, who wounded him through his helmet: this so added to his fury, that, summoning all his strength, he with one blow overthrew both horse and rider; on this his soldiers renewed the fight with redoubled vigour, and gained a complete victory. Fortune now appeared to promise Henry a happy reign: he was in peaceable possession of two powerful states, had a son acknowledged undisputed heir to the throne, and a daughter, named Matilda, married to the Emperor Henry V. of Germany. All his prospects were, however, clouded by unforeseen misfortunes, which deeply tinged his remaining years with misery. On his return from Normandy, where he had taken his son to receive the homage of the barons, the captain and crew of the vessel which carried the prince became so intoxicated, that they ran the ship upon a rock, where it was dashed to pieces. The prince was put into a boat, and might have escaped had he not been called back by the cries of Maude, his

natural sister. Unable to leave in distress one so dear to him, he ordered the sailors to row him back; but on the approach of the boat, numbers who had been left on the wreck leaped into it, and the whole went to the bottom. Above one hundred noblemen were lost. A butcher of Rouen alone escaped; he clung to the mast, and was taken up next morning by some fishermen. Fitzstephen, the captain, seeing the butcher struggling with the waves, swam up to him, and inquired whether the prince was yet living; when learning that he had perished, he cried out, "I will not survive him," and immediately sunk to rise no more. The shrieks of these unfortunate people reached the shore, and were even heard in the king's ship; but the cause was then unknown. During three days Henry cherished the hope that his son had put into some distant port of England: but when certain intelligence of the disaster reached him he fainted away, and from that moment was never seen to smile. He died sometime after of a surfeit, by eating too freely of lampreys, a dish he was extremely fond of. He was interred in the abbey of Reading, on Christmas Day, 1135, leaving the succession to his daughter Matilda.

1135. STEPHEN.

No sooner was the king's death known to Stephen, son of Adela, Henry's sister, than he hastened from Normandy, and was immediately saluted king by the populace. His next step was to gain the clergy and nobility; and for that purpose his brother, the Bishop of Winchester, exerted all his influence, and with no little success. Stephen, in the mean time, seizing the vast treasures of his uncle, prepared to meet Matilda, who had landed upon the coast of Sussex. Upon his approach she shut herself up in Arundel Castle, where she was protected by the Queen Dowager, who secretly favoured her pretensions. This fortress would soon have fallen, had it not been represented to the king, that to take a castle by force which belonged to the Queen Dowager, would be an infringement of the respect due to her dignity. Stephen, with a generosity which occasionally mixed itself with the rudeness of

those times, suffered her to depart in safety. He, however, had soon reason to repent of his gallantry, for in a battle fought soon after, Stephen was taken prisoner, after giving most amazing proofs of personal bravery. Matilda, upon this success, was crowned at Winchester, with all imaginable solemnity. She was, however, no ways fit for governing the kingdom. She treated the barons with a haughtiness and disdain to which they had not been accustomed, so that they began to pity the deposed monarch, and repent of the steps they had taken in the Queen's favour. The Bishop of Winchester, who had gone over to the party of the Queen, now turned against her, and was soon sufficiently strong to besiege her in Winchester, whence, pressed by famine, she was obliged to escape; whilst her brother, the Earl of Gloucester, was taken prisoner in making good her retreat, and was exchanged for Stephen. Thus another sudden revolution took place; Matilda was deposed, and Stephen again recognised as king.

But he was soon to enter the lists with a new adversary, in the person of Henry, son of Matilda, who now resolved to assert his right to the kingdom. Assured of the favourable disposition of the people, ever fond of change, and of the barons, who were disgusted with Stephen's attempt to get their castles into his hands, he made a descent on England, and was immediately joined by most of the barons. Stephen marched with all possible diligence to oppose him, and arriving within sight of the enemy, prepared for battle. In this situation the two armies remained for some time, expecting a bloody engagement. While they continued thus in anxious expectation, a treaty was set on foot by the Earl of Arundel, in order to terminate the dispute without bloodshed. The death of Stephen's son, Eustace, which happened during the course of the treaty, favoured its conclusion. It was therefore agreed, that Stephen should reign during his life, and that Henry, after his death, should succeed to the throne. Stephen did not long survive, dying a year after this treaty at Canterbury, where he was interred, October 25, 1154.

CHAPTER II.

ECCLESIASTICAL AFFAIRS.

As William was now undisputed master of England, he no longer found it necessary to court popularity, and he therefore made it his principal object to dismiss the natives from every dignity of the church, and replace them by foreigners. For this purpose he requested Pope Alexander to send a commission for the reformation of abuses. Stigand, the archbishop, was deposed, and Lanfranc consecrated and raised to the see of Canterbury in his stead. One or two, for the irregularity of their lives, justly merited their punishment; but the greater part were deposed for no other crime than that of being Englishmen. Amidst these depositions an attempt was made to eject St. Wulstan from the see of Winchester, under pretence of his not understanding the Norman language, and at a synod, held at Westminster Abbey, the resignation of his episcopal staff was required. At this demand St. Wulstan arose, and, holding the crozier with a firm hand, he thus addressed the primate, Lanfranc: "I am aware, my lord archbishop, that I am neither worthy of this dignity nor equal to its duties; this I knew when the clergy elected, when the prelates compelled, and my master called me to fill it. By the authority of the holy see he laid this burthen upon me, and with this staff he commanded me to receive the rank of bishop. You now demand of me the pastoral staff which you did not present, and the office which you did not bestow. Aware of my insufficiency, and obedient to this holy synod, I now resign them—not however, to you, but to him by whose authority I received them." He then advanced to the tomb of Edward the Confessor, and thus solemnly invoked the dead king: "Master, thou knowest how reluctantly I assumed this charge, at thy instigation. Thee they accuse of error, in having so ordered, and me of presumption, because I obeyed. Not to them, therefore, who recall what they did not give, and who may deceive and be deceived, but to thee who gave them, and art now raised above all error, I resign my staff and surren-

der my flock." Saying thus, the meek prelate laid his crozier upon the tomb, and took his seat among the monks, as a simple brother of their order. The synod did not attempt to accept a resignation so tendered, and the holy prelate continued in his see. Upon the whole, however, this change, although accompanied by much injustice, was ultimately of benefit to the English church. The new bishops introduced a stricter discipline, excited a thirst for learning, and distributed their wealth in works of piety and public magnificence.

During the reign of the Conqueror, a controversy arose respecting the jurisdiction of the see of Canterbury over that of York, which was carried to Rome. The Pope referred the matter to the king and the English bishops, by whose decision the Archbishop of York was obliged to submit. The dispute, however, was sometimes revived by their successors.

William, although of an impetuous temper, had kept up a good understanding with the see of Rome, but he was not always so complaisant. In one of his angry moods, he published an order that no papal constitution should be received, unless first inspected and approved of by him. Also, that no national synod called by the Archbishop of Canterbury should have any force, unless he allowed of it; that no baron or officer of the king's court should be excommunicated, or obliged to undergo public penance, without his consent. These orders, it must be observed, did not regard matters of faith, but of discipline, by which the king apprehended that the government of the realm might be affected; but in the essential rights of the supremacy he certainly paid due respect to the holy see, and was anxious for the propagation of religion. He founded many noble abbeys and monasteries, and particularly that of Battle, where he obtained the victory over Harold.

Among the foreign ecclesiastics introduced by William, Lanfranc was the most illustrious, both by his abilities and piety. He was always respected and listened to by the king, over whom he had great influence, which he employed in the support of justice and the protection of the natives. To his perseverance and firmness the church of Canterbury owed a great part

of its possessions, which he rescued from the hands of the Conqueror and his successor.

During the life of this prelate, William II. shewed some veneration for religion, but after his death, the king, who had been restrained by his wise counsels, became exceedingly rapacious, seizing many of the revenues of the monasteries and cathedrals, and exposing the dignities of the church to open sale. When any bishopric or abbey became vacant, some unprincipled person was found pliant to every measure of the court, who suffered the church to be pillaged, and benefices to be kept vacant for a long time, that the crown might enjoy the revenues.

In the year 1193, William II., being attacked by a dangerous illness, sent for the celebrated St. Anselm, Abbot of Bec, in Normandy, to whom he made his confession, and by whose exhortations he appeared so touched with compunction, that he promised to become a new man, and signed a declaration which he ordered to be published. It imported that all state prisoners should be set at liberty, and satisfaction made for the injustices he had done them; that whereas he had kept the see of Canterbury five years in his hands, and appropriated the revenues, he now made a tender of it to Anselm; this, however, the holy man declined. William shortly after recovering, quickly forgot his good resolutions, though he still continued to press St. Anselm to accept the see of Canterbury. Anselm at last consented, upon the following conditions: "That the king should restore the lands he had taken from that see, and submit to the bishops in matters in which he had manifestly encroached upon their authority." These conditions were accepted, and Anselm was consecrated. Scarcely, however, was the ceremony performed, when the king renewed his rapacity; for several months he obliged the tenants of the archbishop to pay their rents into his treasury, and after having reduced him to such a state of poverty that the expenses of his household were defrayed by the abbot of St. Alban's, he insisted upon a great present in return for his promotion to the archbishopric. Upon the refusal of Anselm to comply with his sacrilegious demands, he was filled with rage and bitter resentment against the pre-

late, and so harassed him on every opportunity, that the archbishop was obliged to quit the kingdom and retire to Rome. William, after his departure, continued in the same course, till he was suddenly arrested in the midst of his career by his death in the New Forest.

In the reign of Henry I. religious affairs bore, for a short time, a better aspect; he recalled St. Anselm, imprisoned Ranulphus, the chief contriver of the oppressions in the former reign, and banished libertines and scandalous characters from his court; but the disputes concerning investitures and the vacant benefices were once more renewed, and arose to a great pitch. In the end, however, the king agreed to surrender them to the holy see.

Some abuses having crept into the church by the non-observance of celibacy among the clergy, St. Anselm summoned a synod at Westminster, in which it was enacted, "That all priests, deacons, and subdeacons, should be obliged by their vow made at their ordination." Henry took advantage of this, and endeavoured to convert it into a source of profit. He imposed heavy fines upon every one found to have transgressed; but as the number was so small as to disappoint his expectations, he levied a certain fine upon every clergyman, guilty or not, and imprisoned or tortured those who were unable to pay. St. Anselm ended his ardent career and holy life in 1109, in the seventy-sixth year of his age, and sixteenth year of his primacy. His writings, which still remain, prove him to have possessed, in addition to the holiness of his life, a great fund of theological and literary knowledge; following up zealously and extending the plans of his predecessor, Lanfranc, for the establishment of schools, and the diffusion of learning in the country of his adoption. The English loved him as if he had been one of themselves; and it is probably to the favour he thus enjoyed with the conquered race, and the predilection for them on his part, that he owed, in some degree, the royal aversion by which his life was embittered. After his death, Henry was in no haste to fill the see of Canterbury, and he kept it vacant for the space of five years.

Stephen, upon his accession to the throne, took an oath, in the presence of the bishops and the Pope's

legate, to preserve the liberty of the church; and, in particular, not to seize and embezzle the profits of vacant benefices, which should be preserved for the church and the next incumbent. But no sooner was he in possession of the crown, than, disregarding his oath, he seized at pleasure the treasures of the church, bestowed the revenues upon laymen, or sold them to strangers, imprisoned the bishops, and obliged them to surrender their lands.

CHAPTER III.

LAWS, GOVERNMENT.

The feudal law was the chief foundation both of the government and jurisprudence established by the Normans in England. According to the principles of this law, the king was the supreme lord of the landed property: for the word feudal signifies a possession held under another. The land was considered to be a species of gift, for which the vassal owed certain service to his lord, as the lord did to the crown. The vassal was obliged to defend his lord in time of war; and the baron, at the head of his vassals, was bound to defend the king and kingdom. As William the Conqueror, by taking the usual oath administered to the Anglo-Saxon kings at their coronation, had solemnly engaged to maintain the constitution, the English nation had reason to believe that they had only changed their native prince for one of foreign extraction. But though William for some time affected moderation, and even adopted some of the laws of Edward the Confessor, he soon utterly subverted the form of government, and in its stead substituted a rigid feudal monarchy, or military aristocracy. This was attended with a grievous depression of the body of the people, who were daily exposed to the insults and extortions of the barons whose vassals they were, and from whose jurisdiction it was difficult and dangerous for them to appeal. This depression, as might be expected, was more complete under the first Norman kings than in any other feudal government. William, by his artful and tyrannical poli-

cy, had become in the course of his reign proprietor of almost all the lands of the kingdom. These he bestowed upon his Norman captains; but those grants he clogged with heavy feudal services, which the receiver could not refuse.

In order to remove all uncertainty, and prevent the revenues of the crown from being exposed to fraud, William the Conqueror ordered a general survey to be made of every hide of land throughout the kingdom. For this purpose commissioners were appointed, with orders to ascertain the boundaries of each estate, the names of the owners and tenants, their number and condition, their estimated value, the nature of their tenures, and the amount of the land-tax. The fruit of their labours was the compilation of two volumes, which were deposited in the exchequer, and have been transmitted to the present time, under the title of the Domesday, or book of judgment.

The prerogative of buying, in preference to all others, things necessary for their courts and castles, commonly called purveyances, which belonged to the kings of England in this period, was a source of infinite vexations and injuries to the people. "The purveyors who attended the court," says a respectable historian, "plundered and destroyed the whole country through which the king passed without control. Some of them were so intoxicated with malice, that when they could not consume all the provisions in the houses, they either sold or burnt them."

The Saxon courts of justice were suffered to decline; the county court in particular, the dignity of which for several years survived the Norman invasion, fell by a blow equally unjust and impolitic; for about the year 1085 the bishops and priests were prohibited from sitting there. On this the lay barons thought it beneath their dignity to attend; and that hall of justice, whose bench used to be crowded with prelates and peers, was gradually deserted.

The king's court, after the conquest, was very splendid. There sat the great officers of the crown, the justices, and the barons. In the monarch's absence, the first justiciary presided; the ceremonies were magnificent, and the habits brilliant and costly. Could

pomp and parade have compensated for the want of equity, the Saxon jurisprudence might have been forgotten. Courts were held by the barons, at the halls of their castles, where trivial causes were decided. Fines were a considerable branch of the royal revenue; the supreme court of judicature was open to none who did not bring presents. The barons of the exchequer were not ashamed to insert in their records, that the county of Norfolk gave money that it might be fairly dealt with. Enormous sums were paid by females, for permission not to be forced to marry against their wills. Even ladies of high rank were not exempted; for we find Lucia, Countess of Chester, paying five marks not to be compelled to marry in five years. Those who had not money to compound for capital offences were executed commonly at Smithfield. But the rigour of the Norman government and the licentiousness of part of the nobles proved ultimately favourable to general liberty. The defect of the Norman title induced their kings to listen to the complaints of the people, and to redress many of their grievances. The people thus became sensible of their own importance; while the barons, finding themselves in secure possession of their estates, apprehending no further disturbances, bore with impatience the burthens imposed upon them by William. They saw the necessity of conciliating their vassals, in order to obtain sufficient force to enable them to retrench the prerogatives of the crown. Thus restored to a share in the legislature, the English commonalty, by a long and vigorous struggle maintained with unexampled perseverance, wrested from both king and nobles all the other rights of a free people, of which their ancestors had been robbed by the invasion and cruel policy of William.

LEARNING AND LEARNED MEN.

What learning existed at this period, was still for the most part confined to the clergy. Even the nobility appear to have been very rarely initiated in any of those branches which were considered as constituting the scholarship of the times. The familiar knowledge of the Latin language, which was then the way to all other erudition, seems to have been almost exclusively

confined to the churchmen, and to those few of the laity who embraced the profession of schoolmasters. When Henry II., in 1164, sent an embassy to the Pope, in which the Earl of Arundel and three other noblemen were associated with an archbishop, four bishops, and three of the royal chaplains; four of the clergy at the audience delivered as many Latin harangues, and then the Earl of Arundel made a speech in English, which he began with these words:—"We, who are illiterate laymen, do not understand one word the bishops have said to your holiness." Schools, however, and other seminaries of learning, were greatly multiplied in this age, and patronized and promoted by the general voice of the church. Besides the cathedral schools, others were established in all the religious houses. It is reckoned that of religious houses founded between the conquest and the death of King John, there were no fewer than 557, besides those founded in the Saxon times. Many others were founded in the chief cities, and even in the villages, such as St. Alban's, and London, &c. The London schools, according to the description of Fitz Stephen, appear to have been merely schools of grammar, rhetoric, and dialectics. "On holidays," he says, "these schools hold public assemblies in the churches, in which the scholars engage in logical disputations. Even the younger boys, in the different schools, engage against each other in verse about the principles of grammar and the preterites and supines of verbs."

The twelfth century may be called the age of the institution of universities, though many of the establishments that then assumed the regular form of universities had undoubtedly existed long before as schools. Both Oxford and Cambridge, as well as London and St. Alban's, and other cities, had been eminent seats of learning for some centuries; but there is no evidence that, before this period, they had been any thing else than great schools, undistinguished by any particular rank or privileges. Of the state of the school at Cambridge, we have the following account from a cotemporary writer. "In the year 1109," says Peter of Blois, "Joffred, Abbot of Crayland, sent to his manor of Cottenham, near Cambridge, Master Gislebert, hi

fellow monk and a professor of theology, with three other monks, who being very well instructed in philosophical experiments and other sciences, went every day to Cambridge, and having hired a certain public barn, taught the sciences openly, and in a little time, collected a great concourse of scholars, so that no house, barn, or church, could contain them. For this reason, they separated into different parts of the town, and imitating the plan of the studium of Orleans—brother Odo read grammar to the boys and younger students early in the morning; brother Terricus read the logic of Aristotle to those further advanced; at three, brother William read lectures on Tully's Rhetoric and Quintillian's Institutions; but Master Gislebert, being ignorant of English, but very expert in the French and Latin languages, preached to the people in the churches on Sundays and holidays."

The branches of literary and scientific knowledge, which were specially called the arts, were divided into two great classes. The first, or more elementary, comprehending grammar, rhetoric, and logic, was called Trivium; the second, including music, arithmetic, geometry, and astronomy, the Quadrivium. The whole seven, so classified, used to be thus enumerated in a Latin hexameter, "Lingua, Tropus, Ratio, Numerus, Tonus, Angulus, Astra." Our principal learned men of these times were, Lanfranc; St. Anselm; John of Salisbury; Robert of Melun, Bishop of Hereford; Robert White; Nicholas Breakspear, who became pope by the title of Adrian IV.; Eadmer; and William of Malmsbury.

The classical learning of this period appears, however, to have been almost entirely confined to the Roman authors, few studied Greek. The mathematical sciences appear also to have been little known, and the little understood appears to have been devoted to the false science of astrology. "Mathematicians," says Peter of Blois, "are these who, from the position of the stars, the aspect of the firmament, and the motions of the planets, discover things that are to come." The science of medicine comprehended the diagonostics and treatment of diseases from Hippocrates and Galen, and a tolerable knowledge of botany and chemistry. Of

anatomy little could as yet be accurately known, the dissection of the human body not being practised. Study of every kind must, indeed, have been greatly impeded by the scarcity of books, though their multiplication went on much more rapidly than it had formerly done. Of the numerous monasteries existing in this country, few or none were without libraries of greater or less extent. A convent without a library, it was proverbially said, was like a castle without an armoury.

COMMERCE, ARTS, MANNERS.

The commerce of England, which had not been contemptible even during the ravages of her various spoilers, began at this period to increase rapidly. Besides London, whose opulent traders were styled barons, York, Bristol, Canterbury, Exeter, and many other cities, grew rich by their trade and navigation. The exports were horses, wool, leather, cloth, corn, lead, and tin. The imports, gold, precious stones, silk, tapestry, furs, wines, and spices. Little alteration was made by the Norman kings in the coins used by the Saxons. The silver penny is sometimes called esterling or sterling, about the derivation of which words antiquaries are much divided.

The conquest of England by the Normans contributed much to the improvement of agriculture in Britain, by the many thousand husbandmen who settled in this island.

Architecture received as great improvements as agriculture: indeed, the twelfth age may very properly be called the age of Gothic architecture. The religious of every order displayed the most astonishing ardour in every thing tending to the splendour of divine worship. The ancient edifices, built in the days of Edgar and Edward the Confessor, were demolished, and others more magnificent erected in their place.

As William the Conqueror was sensible that the want of fortified places in England had greatly hastened his conquest, and might facilitate his expulsion, he built strong castles in all the towns within the royal domains. All his earls, barons, and prelates, imitated his example. William Rufus was a still greater builder than his father, as the castles of Dover, Windsor, Norwich, Exeter, the palace of Westminster, and many others, testify. Under

the patronage of the clergy, sculpture and painting also flourished. The illumination of missals and other books, chiefly done by the monks, continues to be the admiration even of the present time.

The very singular spirit of chivalry, which began to display itself about this period, gave a new turn to the education of the nobility and gentry. Their first entrance was usually into the family of some baron, where they acted in the capacity of pages or valets, which names, though now used to designate domestic servants, were then given even to the sons or brothers of kings. In this station they were instructed in the laws of courtesy and politeness, and in martial exercises. After a competent time spent in the station of pages, they were advanced to the rank of esquires, and perfected in dancing, riding, hawking, hunting, tilting, and other accomplishments.

It does not appear that many additions were made to the stock of English comforts or household furniture by the Normans of this period. We perceive the same sort of tables (long and oval), the same sort of plates, dishes, cups, and knives; fowls and roast meat were still served up upon spits to the guests; hangings of needle-work seem to have been partially superseded by paintings on the walls.

The clothing of the Normans of this period consisted of the tunic, the cloak, the long tight hose (called by them chausses), the leg bandages, and shoes or short boots; a flat sort of cap or bonnet is the most frequently met with. The Saxons, for some time after the conquest, were distinguished by their flowing locks and their rich embroidered dresses. In the female costume, the change was more in name than garment. The gunna, or gown, became the robe; and the veil or head cloth (the couvre-chef, whence the word kerchief.) The hair was worn long and plaited. The ladies' sleeves were preposterously long, sometimes hanging from the wrist to the heels, and of the most singular forms.

The Normans were brave and generous; but haughty, passionate, and licentious. They had only two meals a day, dinner and supper: the time of dinner was, even at court, at nine o'clock in the morning, and the time of supper at five in the afternoon.

BOOK V.

MILITARY AFFAIRS.

THE PLANTAGENETS UNDIVIDED.

From the Death of Stephen to the Deposition of Richard II., including a period of 245 years.

CHAPTER I.

THE REIGN OF HENRY II., 34 YEARS, 8 MONTHS, 12 DAYS.

1154.—The first acts of Henry's reign confirmed the people in their high esteem for him. He began by driving from the kingdom those swarms of mercenaries, whose whole trade was war, and who were ever ready to create disturbances; he razed a great number of the fortresses which had been built in the former reigns by individuals, and which served only to keep up revolts and feuds, by the shelter they afforded. He granted charters to several towns, by which the citizens claimed their freedom, independently of any superior but himself. These charters were the groundwork of English liberty. After this he passed into France, where he dispossessed his brother Geoffrey of the earldom of Anjou, obliging him to accept of an annuity instead. He was, however, hastily recalled by a general rising of the Welch. In order to chastise them, he entered Flintshire, but being ignorant of the country he was drawn into a defile, where he with great difficulty preserved his army from being cut to pieces: he, however, forced the pass, and after ravaging the country, obliged the Welch chiefs to sue for peace, which was granted on the homage of their princes, and giving hostages for their fidelity. Returning to France, he obliged Lewis, who had again begun the war, to quit Chamont, which he had fortified, and to retire in disorder. The armies were afterwards on the point of joining battle, when the monarchs were reconciled by Pope Alexander, who was so honoured by them, that they walked on foot on

each side of his horse, and performed the office of yeomen. A peace was finally concluded between the two monarchs, by Henry's agreeing to give up Maine and Anjou; which condition, however, he never performed.

Henry now turned his thoughts to Ireland, the proximity of which made it a desirable appendage of the crown, and where the inferiority of the natives in the art of war, together with the distracted state of the country, promised an easy conquest. To justify this invasion, he asserted that his only desire was the reformation of their clergy, and the civilization of the inhabitants. For this purpose, he sent an envoy to Pope Adrian, to assure him of his good intentions, and to obtain his consent. The project, however, owing to the opposition of the barons, and some further schemes of Henry, was at that time laid aside. In the mean time the dissensions of the Irish among themselves increased. Dermot, King of Leinster, had carried away by force the wife of O'Rourke, King of Leitrim. O'Rourke, to avenge the insult, claimed the aid of O'Connor, monarch of Ireland, who obliged the adulterer to restore the fugitive. O'Rourke and Dermot from that time became bitter enemies, and in the end Dermot was driven out of the kingdom. Crossing over to England, he solicited assistance from Henry, and did homage to him for his dominions. Henry immediately granted his request, and permitted Strongbow, Earl of Pembroke, and two brothers, Fitzstephen and Fitzgerald, to cross over to Ireland with their followers. Success followed their efforts; the undisciplined bravery of the natives was vain; city after city was taken, and at last Dublin fell into the hands of the rapacious invaders. Henry now found his jealousy of Strongbow awakened: he forbade any more of his subjects from crossing into Ireland, and ordered all who had joined him to return. Strongbow, alarmed, hastened to England, and, renewing his homage and fealty, surrendered to Henry the city of Dublin, together with all the castles in his possession. The king was pacified: he embarked with Strongbow at Milford Haven, and landed at Waterford, receiving, as he passed to Dublin, the homage of various chiefs. Henry was, however, obliged soon to quit Ireland and go over to Normandy,

where the rebellion of his sons, aided by the Kings of France and Scotland, and the Earl of Flanders, whose armies were ready to fall upon him, demanded his presence. His first care was to make head against the Scots, who were completely routed by a small body of his forces and their king made prisoner, whilst he broke through the French camp before Rouen, which city he relieved. Peace followed this success, and he was reconciled to his sons. Henry, the eldest, died soon after, with the deepest contrition for his undutiful conduct to his father, and three years after Geoffrey was killed by a fall from his horse. (A. D. 1186.)

There remained now of the king's sons Richard and John, who, far from amity or brotherly affection, conceived nothing but jealousy of each other's ambitious pretensions. Richard again left his father, and went over to the King of France, whose daughter he had betrothed, but who was kept confined by Henry, as it was said, to make her his mistress. Hostilities, therefore, recommenced, and Richard, with most of the continental barons, joined the French king. Henry unable to resist their numbers, was obliged to abandon many of his strong places. By the persuasion of the bishops, however, a conference was held, and Henry, overcome by sickness and broken by his grief, agreed to all their demands; but, when, upon requiring a list of the barons whom he had stipulated to pardon, he found John, his favourite child, among the number, he could no longer contain himself. He had borne an infirm state of body with calm resignation; but, overpowered by the black ingratitude of a child, whose interest lay next his heart, he broke out into expressions of the utmost despair, cursed the day of his birth, and laid on his wicked child a malediction, which he could never afterwards be prevailed upon to retract. A lingering fever ensued, caused by a broken heart, which soon after terminated his life at the castle of Chinon, near Saumur, in the fifty-eighth year of his age.

RICHARD I., SURNAMED CŒUR DE LION, REIGNED 10 YEARS.

1189.—RICHARD I., Henry's eldest surviving son, succeeded to the crown, and immediately began his preparations for a crusade to the Holy Land. After hav-

ing raised very considerable sums in England, he sailed to Normandy for the like purpose. He then assembled his troops, and joined the King of France, whom he met on the plains of Vezelai; their united armies amounted to 100,000 men. With these they set sail, but were obliged by a tempest to land in Sicily, where they remained during the winter. Here mutual jealousies arose between Richard and Philip. The Sicilians, instigated by Philip, and irritated at the insolence of the English soldiers, attacked them in the streets of Messina. Richard immediately flew to arms, took the city, and gave it up for some time to the fury of his men. Peace, however, was made, and the monarchs again set sail for the Holy Land.

Upon their arrival in Palestine, they began the attack of Acre, which had hitherto resisted all the efforts of the Crusaders; but the impetuous valour of Richard soon obliged the garrison to capitulate, and the place was taken. (A. D. 1191.) Philip shortly after, disgusted with the haughtiness of Richard, and jealous of his superior abilities and popularity, retired to France, while Richard, left to himself, proceeded from victory to victory. In order to pave the way for the reduction of Jerusalem, Richard determined to besiege Ascalon, a place of surprising strength. Saladin, the Saracen monarch, on the other hand, determined to dispute his march, and with 300,000 men offered Richard battle. The English accepted it, and were victorious: the king performed prodigies of valour; the Saracens fled in confusion, after the loss of 40,000 of their best troops. Ascalon surrendered: other cities followed the example, and Richard advanced within sight of Jerusalem; but here was an end of all his glorious prospects. Upon reviewing his army, he found it so wasted by sickness, fatigue, and even victory, that it became absolutely necessary to make a truce with Saladin, which was accordingly agreed upon for three years, and in which it was settled that the sea-port towns of Palestine should remain in the hands of the Crusaders, and pilgrims be permitted to visit the holy sepulchre in security. Richard, on his return, had the misfortune to be shipwrecked near Aquileia, whence he proceeded in disguise to Vienna. Here he was discovered by Leopold, Duke of

Austria, who had served under him at the siege of Acre. His revenge for some affront received there, joined to his avarice, instigated him to seize upon Richard, and send him prisoner to the emperor, who was sordid enough to demand a heavy ransom, and even refused him his liberty till the sum was raised in England and sent over to Germany.

While Richard was confined in Germany, the internal affairs of his kingdom were in a very unprosperous situation; harassed by his brother John, and impoverished by the rapacity of the Chancellor Longchamp. John, wishing to secure the throne for himself, determined to remove the chancellor, who was inimical to him, out of the way; and after several attempts, succeeded in driving him out of the kingdom. Upon hearing of Richard's return from the Holy Land, John entered into a league with the French king, and assembled an army to contend for the crown. In the mean time the Chancellor, having discovered the confinement of his master, was sent by him to collect money for his ransom. After various shameful subterfuges of the emperor, Richard was set at liberty, and disembarked at Sandwich, amidst the acclamations of his subjects.

Richard immediately determined to punish the perfidy of the French king. He landed in Normandy, where he was met by his brother John, who implored forgiveness on his knees. By the intercession of the queen-mother, Richard forgave him, though he would not consent to restore his castles or lands.

After various desultory actions, Richard laid siege to Courcelles, and Philip marched to relieve it. The place, however, was taken, and Richard met the king near Gisors. The French lost the battle, and fled in confusion to Gisors, where the bridge breaking under them, the King of France and twenty men, all in armour, were precipitated into the river; all perished but Philip. A still more agreeable success awaited Richard by the capture of the Count-Bishop of Beauvais, who had fought at the head of his retainers. As Richard attributed much of the hardships he had endured, when in confinement, to the instigation of this prelate, he loaded him with fetters, and threw him into a dungeon. The bishop had recourse to the pope, who

severely reproved him for neglecting the duties of his station, by putting on the helmet instead of the mitre. He, however, consented to intercede for him, and for that purpose sent a letter to Richard, wherein he begs him to pity "his dear son, the bishop." Richard, in answer, sent the bishop's coat of mail, with these words, "Look if this be the coat of thy son." "No," said the pope, smiling, "it is the coat of Mars; let Mars deliver him if he can."

Soon after, Richard, while besieging the castle of Chalus, belonging to one of his refractory barons, was pierced in the shoulder by an archer, who had taken deliberate aim at him. He immediately gave orders for the assault; took the place, and hanged the whole garrison, except Gourdon the archer, whom he reserved for a more cruel death. The wound itself was not dangerous; but the unskilful surgeon, in extracting the arrow, so rankled the part, that a gangrene ensued, which proved mortal. When Richard found his end approaching, he sent for Gourdon, and asked him why he had sought his life. "My father and my brothers fell by your sword," replied the undaunted soldier, "and you intended to execute me. I am in your power; but I shall endure the most severe torments with pleasure, since Heaven has afforded me the means of avenging my family." Struck with the boldness of the reply, and humbled by his approaching dissolution, he ordered the prisoner to be set at liberty, and presented with one hundred shillings. But Marchadee, his general, a stranger to such generosity, ordered him to be flayed alive, and then hanged. Richard died in the forty-second year of his age, and was buried at Fontevraud, at the feet of his father.

Richard added to an astonishing degree of muscular strength, a soul incapable of fear. As a warrior, he towers above all his contemporaries: such was the dread of his prowess, even among the Saracens, that for a century after his death the Saracen mothers used to terrify their children with his name; but his fame was purchased by the impoverishment of his subjects; and though sometimes magnanimous, he was cruel, proud, and resentful.

1199.—JOHN, REIGNED 17 YEARS, 7 MONTHS, 13 DAYS.

ALTHOUGH Arthur, son of Geoffrey, the elder brother of Richard and John, was next in blood, as he was out of England upon the decease of the late king, John was proclaimed and crowned with the general consent of the bishops and barons. Arthur, his nephew, whom he had made prisoner during a contest with the French king, under whose banners he fought, died shortly after, but whether naturally or by violence cannot be absolutely known, though it was generally believed that John had him dispatched privately in the castle of Rouen, in which place he had confined him. By a subsequent war with France, John lost all Normandy, Maine, Touraine, Anjou, and Poictiers.

This disastrous conflict with France was followed by another with the Pope, equally disgraceful in its result. Hubert, Archbishop of Canterbury, being dead, the king insisted upon the election of John, Bishop of Norwich, to that dignity. The Bishop had long been the confidential adviser of the King, and more employed in the affairs of the state than the government of his diocese. Stephen Langton, an Englishman of great piety and eminent abilities, was therefore proposed by the Pope, and elected by the monks then at Rome. John, highly enraged, drove the monks from their convents, and seized their possessions. In vain were remonstrances and threats; John remained obstinate, and the kingdom was put under an interdict by the pope, who shortly after pronounced the sentence of excommunication against him. Finding now the hearts of all men turned from him, and being no longer able to trust any one, he reluctantly consented to subscribe to an instrument, by which he agreed to restore both clergy and laity to their offices and estates; to admit Langton to be Archbishop of Canterbury; and to liberate all persons imprisoned upon account of the late quarrel. On the following morning, in presence of Pandulf, the Pope's legate, he swore fealty to the holy see; and at the same time basely signed a charter, granting to the Pope the kingdoms of England and Ireland, which John agreed to hold under him, at the annual rent of 1,000 marks.

In consequence of these disgraces, joined to his repeated acts of cruelty and meanness, John became the object of the contempt and detestation of his subjects and neighbours. The barons had long been forming a confederacy against him; but their union was broken, or their aims disappointed, by various and unforeseen accidents. At length they assembled a large body of men at Stamford, and marched to Brackley, about fifteen miles from Oxford, where the court then resided.

John, hearing of their approach, sent to know what were their designs. The barons delivered a schedule containing the chief articles, of which the laws of Edward the Confessor were the ground-work. No sooner were these shewn to the king, than he grew furious, and asked why the Barons had not demanded his kingdom; swearing that he would never comply with such exorbitant proposals. But the confederacy was now too strong to fear much from the consequences of his resentment. They chose Robert Fitzwalter for their general, and proceeded to make war against the king. John, struck with terror, first offered to refer all differences to the Pope, or to eight barons, four of whom were to be chosen by himself, and four by the confederates. This the barons scornfully rejected. He at length assured them it was his royal will to grant their demands, and a conference was appointed to adjust all things for this most important treaty. (A. D. 1215.) The ground where the King's commissioners met the Barons was between Staines and Windsor, at a place called Runnimede, still held in reverence by posterity, as the spot where the standard of freedom was first erected in England. Few debates ensued; and the king, with a facility that was somewhat suspicious, signed and sealed the Magna Charta, which is in force to this day, and is the firmest bulwark of English liberty. John, however, could not long brook concessions that were extorted from his fears, and therefore took the first opportunity to declare that he would not be governed by them. This produced a second civil war, in which the Barons had recourse to the king of France for assistance. Thus England had the gloomy prospect of being every way undone. If John succeeded, a tyrannical and implacable monarch was to be

their tormentor · and should the French king prevail, the country was ever after to submit to be governed by France. What neither human prudence could foresee, nor policy suggest, was brought about by a happy and unexpected event. John had assembled a considerable army, with the view of making one great effort to crush the Barons. With this intention he departed from Lynn, and directed his route towards Lincolnshire. His road lay along the shore, which was overflowed at high water; but not being apprised of this, or ignorant of the tide of the place, he lost all his carriages, treasure, and baggage, by its sudden influx. He himself escaped with the greatest difficulty, and reached the abbey of Sewingstead, where grief for the loss he had sustained threw him into a fever, which soon shewed fatal symptoms. The next day, being unable to ride on horseback, he was carried in a litter to the castle of Seaford, and thence to Newark, where, having made his will, he sent for his confessor, and died three days after, in the forty-ninth year of his age bequeathing the crown to his son Henry.

1216.—HENRY III., REIGNED 56 YEARS, 1 MONTH, 4 DAYS.

As the intestine commotions under which the barons had called in the aid of the French, commanded by the Dauphin Lewis, ceased by the death of John, Henry was proclaimed and crowned at Gloucester, in the tenth year of his age, in the presence of Wallo, the Pope's legate, of the bishops, earls, and barons; the Earl of Pembroke, a nobleman of great valour, who had remained faithful to John in all his adversities, being chosen guardian to the young king. The Dauphin, however, still held London, and had many of the barons on his side. The Earl of Pembroke, determining to crush this danger in the beginning, went to Newark, where he assembled his troops, who were resolved to conquer or die in defence of their country, their sovereign, and their liberties. To increase their confidence, Wallo with great solemnity excommunicated Lewis and all his abettors. Marching to Lincoln, they gave battle to the Earl of Perche, and gained a complete victory. The Earl was killed, Lincoln was taken and plundered. Soon after the French, who were coming

to the assistance of the Dauphin, with a very superior fleet, were defeated, and most of their ships taken. Lewis, now finding his affairs desperate, entered into a treaty, and quitted the kingdom.

The young king, who was gentle, religious, humane, and unsuspicious, but weak, suffered himself to be too easily led by artful and designing favourites, which, together with the preference given to foreigners, so disgusted the Barons, that they formed a powerful confederacy against him, placing at their head Simon de Montfort, Earl of Leicester. This confederacy first manifested itself in the chamber of Parliament, where the Barons appeared in complete armour. The king, upon their entry, asked what was their intention? They submissively replied, to make him their sovereign, by confirming his power, and to have their grievances redressed. Henry instantly summoned a parliament at Oxford, to suggest a new plan of government, and to elect proper persons, who were to be intrusted with the chief authority. (A. D. 1258.) This parliament, afterwards called the Mad Parliament, went expeditiously to work upon the business of reform. The whole state, in their hands, underwent a complete alteration; all its former officers were dismissed, and creatures of their own put in their places. They not only abridged the authority of the king, but the efficacy of Parliament, giving to twelve persons all parliamentary power between each session. Thus these insolent nobles, after trampling upon the crown, threw prostrate all the rights of the people, and a vile oligarchy was on the point of being established for ever.

The first opposition to these usurpations was made by a power, which had lately acquired some influence in the constitution. The knights of the shire had for some time been regularly assembled in a separate house. These soon perceived the grievances, and complained loudly against them. They even called upon the king's eldest son, Edward, to interpose his authority, and save the sinking nation. Edward, who from a very early age had given the strongest proofs of courage, wisdom, and constancy, was at first unwilling to interfere, but be at last consented, and a parliament was called, in which the king assumed his former authority. This

was considered as a breach of the late convention, and a civil war ensued, in which Leicester was victorious, and the king made prisoner; but soon after exchanged for Edward, who was to remain as a hostage. The Parliament, however, notwithstanding Leicester's success, was not so complying as he expected, and finding himself unable to oppose the general wish of the people, he made a merit of necessity, and set Edward at liberty, taking care at the same time to employ emissaries to watch all his motions, and frustrate his aims. (A. D. 1265.) But the prince found means to escape, and put himself at the head of his party. A battle ensued, in which Leicester's army, wasted by famine, was unable to withstand the impetuosity of Edward's attack, who bore down on them with incredible fury. During this terrible day, Leicester behaved with astonishing intrepidity, and kept up the spirit of the action from two in the afternoon till nine at night. At last, having had his horse killed under him, he was compelled to fight on foot; and though he demanded quarter, his adversary refused it. The old king, who was placed in front of the battle, was wounded in the shoulder; and as he was not known by his friends, he was on the point of being killed by a soldier, when he cried out, "I am Henry of Winchester, the king," and he was saved by a knight of the royal army. Prince Edward, on hearing his father's voice, instantly ran to the spot where he lay, and had him removed to a place of safety.

This victory proved decisive, and the prince having restored peace to the nation, resolved to take the cross. In pursuance of this design, he sailed from England with a large army; but was scarcely departed, when the king found his health in so declining a state, that he ordered him to return without delay; but Henry died before his arrival, in the sixty-sixth year of his age.

EDWARD I., REIGNED 34 YEARS, 7 MONTHS, 21 DAYS.

1272.—Though the death of the late king happened whilst Edward was in the Holy Land, measures had been so well taken, that the crown was transferred with perfect tranquillity; and Edward, on his return, was crowned with great pomp. Llewellyn, Prince of Wales, alone refused to attend to do homage for his principality, and

Edward thought this a proper opportunity to reduce the Welsh to subjection, and unite their country to England.

The Welsh had, for many ages, enjoyed their own laws, language, and customs. They were descended from the ancient Britons, who had escaped the Roman and Saxon invaders, and still preserved their freedom, and their country uncontaminated by the admission of foreign conquerors. Whenever England was distressed by faction at home, or its forces called off to wars abroad, the Welsh made it a constant practice to pour in their irregular troops, and lay waste the open country. Edward now levied an army against Llewellyn, and marched into his country. The Welsh prince, upon his approach, took refuge among the inaccessible mountains of Snowdon, the steep retreat that had, for many ages, defended his ancestors against all the attempts of the Roman and Saxon conquerors. But Edward, equally vigilant and cautious, pierced into the very centre of Llewellyn's territories, and approached the Welsh, in their last retreats. There Llewellyn made his submission, and the king retired. But an idle prophecy of Merlin, that Llewellyn was to be the restorer of Brutus's empire in Britain, was sufficient to induce this superstitious prince to revolt once more, and hazard a decisive battle with the English. With this view he marched into Radnorshire, and on passing the Wey, his troops were surprised and defeated by Edward Mortimer, while he himself was absent from his army. Upon his return, seeing the dreadful situation of his affairs, he ran desperately into the midst of the enemy, and quickly found that death he sought. David, the brother of this unfortunate prince, soon after fell in the same cause, and with him expired the government and distinction of the Welsh nation. It was united to England, made a principality, and given to the eldest son of the crown. Foreign conquest might add to the glory of the kingdom; this added to its strength and felicity. The Welsh became blended with their conquerors, and in the lapse of a few ages all national animosity was forgotten.

Shortly after the subjugation of Wales, the affairs of Scotland engaged Edward's attention, and gave him hopes of adding that kingdom also to his dominions.

Margaret, Edward's sister, had been married to the King of Scotland. She bore him two sons and a daughter. The two sons died young: the daughter married the King of Norway. Margaret died shortly after the birth of the second son: and the king being accidentally killed by a fall from his horse, the crown devolved on his grandchild, daughter of Eric, King of Norway. Eric solicited for his daughter the protection of Edward; who readily undertook the charge; intending to marry her to his own son. To this proposal the father readily consented. Edward's plans were, however, frustrated by the untimely death of the princess, upon which three competitors, descendants of the Earl of Huntingdon, by three daughters, claimed the throne. John Hastings, in right of his mother, as one of the co-heiresses of the crown; John Baliol, as descending from the eldest daughter, who was his grandmother; and Robert Bruce, as the actual son of the second daughter. Edward, to whom this dispute was referred, immediately claimed the crown in his own right, and offered it to Bruce to be held under himself; but Bruce nobly refusing it upon such conditions, Baliol accepted the offer and did homage for the crown.

Baliol thus placed upon the Scottish throne, more as a vassal than a king, soon felt the disgrace of his situation, and prepared to assert his independence; but no power the Scots could bring into the field was able to withstand the victorious army of Edward. He overthrew their forces in many engagements, and carried Baliol prisoner to London, destroying at the same time all records and monuments of antiquity that inspired the Scots with a spirit of national pride. William Wallace, however, so celebrated in Scottish story, attempted to rescue his country from the English yoke. His first exploits were confined to petty ravages and occasional attacks upon the English; but he at length overthrew their armies, and slew their generals. Edward, who was in Flanders during these reverses, hastened back, impatient to restore his authority and secure his former conquest. He met the Scottish army at Falkirk, where a battle was fought, which ended in the total rout of the Scots, of whom 12,000 were left dead upon the field, while not above one hundred of

the English were slain. Wallace still, however, continued to assert his independence, wandering with a few followers from mountain to mountain, until at last he was betrayed by Sir John Monteith, his pretended friend. The king, wishing to strike the Scots with an example of severity, ordered him to be conducted to London in chains, where he was hanged, drawn, and quartered with brutal ferocity. (A. D. 1305.)

Bruce, who had been long kept a prisoner in London, at length escaped, and was crowned king by the Bishop of St. Andrews, in the abbey of Scone, where numbers flocked to his standard, resolved to support his pretensions. Edward, finding that after thrice conquering the Scots all his work was to be begun afresh, vowed revenge against the whole nation. Summoning his prelates, nobility, and all who held knight's service, to meet him at Carlisle, he in the mean time detached a body of forces, under Aylmer de Valence, who gained a complete victory over Bruce in Perthshire. Immediately after this dreadful blow, Edward entered Scotland in person, with his army divided into two parts, expecting to find in the opposition of the Scots a pretext to punish them. But this brave prince, cruel only from motives of policy, could not strike the poor natives, who made no resistance. His anger was disappointed in their humiliation, and he was ashamed to extirpate those who only opposed patience to his indignation. His death put an end to the apprehensions of the Scots: he sickened and died at Carlisle of a dysentery, July 7, 1307, in the sixty-ninth year of his age.

Edward was tall, of regular features, majestic aspect, and of a robust constitution; from the great length of his legs, he got the surname of Longshanks. He is by some taxed with severity, but at least he distributed justice without regard to persons. By his queen Eleanor, he had four sons and eleven daughters, most of whom died young; and of his sons, Edward II. alone survived him.

1307.—EDWARD II., REIGNED 19 YEARS, 6 MONTHS, 15 DAYS.

Edward was in the twenty-third year of his age when he succeeded his father. From his early childhood he had lived in the closest intimacy with Piers de Gavestone, son of a gentleman of Guienne and being

of a mild and gentle nature, had allowed his companion to have an entire ascendancy over him. Gavestone was a young man of many personal accomplishments, but utterly destitute of those qualities of the heart which deserve esteem. Intoxicated with his power over Edward, he treated the English nobility with contempt and derision. Edward had married Isabella, daughter of the French king, reckoned the most beautiful woman of the age, but of violent and uncontrolled passions. She could not see, without indignation, the friendship of the king for Gavestone. She placed herself, therefore, at the head of a conspiracy of the barons to ruin him. They met at Westminster, and demanded his immediate banishment. The king, timid and wavering, granted their request: but soon after recalled him; upon which the whole kingdom was in a ferment. The barons flew to arms, and Lancaster put himself at their head. Edward, instead of attempting to make resistance, sought only for safety. He embarked with his favourite at Tinmouth, and sailed with him to Scarborough, where he left him as in a place of security, and then went to York, either to raise an army, or by his presence to allay the general animosity. In the mean time Gavestone was besieged in Scarborough by the Earl of Pembroke. Sensible of the bad condition of the place, he offered terms, stipulating that he should remain a prisoner in Pembroke's hands for two months, and that endeavours should be used in the mean time for a general accommodation. But Pembroke, who had no intention to let him off so easily, ordered him to be conducted to the castle of Dedington, near Banbury, where, on pretence of other business, he left him with a feeble guard. The Earl of Warwick, informed of this, attacked the castle, and quickly made himself master of it and the unfortunate Gavestone. A consultation was immediately held by some of the barons; and it was resolved unanimously to put him to death, as an enemy to the kingdom. They had him conveyed to a place called Blacklow Hill, where his head was severed from his body. To add to Edward's grief, he soon after met with a signal defeat from the Scots, under Bruce, and this drove him once more to

seek relief in the company of favourites. For these he chose the two Despencers, father and son; and so great was his partiality for them, that he dispossessed several nobles of their estates to bestow them upon these courtiers. The barons upon this once more had recourse to arms; sentence of perpetual exile was pronounced against the two Spencers by parliament, and their estates were forfeited. But the king, now roused from his lethargy, took the field in defence of his beloved Spencer; and at the head of 30,000 men, pressed the Earl of Lancaster so closely, that he was obliged to fly from place to place, and was at last made prisoner. As he had formerly shewn little mercy to Gavestone, there was but little extended to him; he was condemned by a court-martial, and beheaded on an eminence near Pomfret. The queen, however, returning to England from France, whither she had withdrawn, joined the discontented nobles, and entirely changed the fortunes of Edward. His friends forsook him; the strong places were given up; and the barons assembled at Hereford proclaimed Prince Edward guardian of the kingdom. The king was soon after taken, as was Hugh Despencer, who was immediately beheaded. The elder Despencer was taken to Bristol, and hanged in his armour; his head was sent to Winchester, and exposed to the insults of the populace. Several other lords also suffered death. The queen and prince made their entry into London, where they were received with great joy. In an assembly of the barons, it was declared that the king was unfit to reign; that he should be deposed, and his son placed upon the throne. The unfortunate king, unable to oppose their proceedings, quietly resigned the crown to his son. He was, notwithstanding, kept a prisoner in Berkely Castle, where the endeavours of his party to release him hastened his unfortunate end; which it is said, was occasioned by a red-hot spit run up his body. It is thought this could not have been done without the privacy of the two noblemen who had the charge of him. Some even think the queen was a party to the cruelty; though Walsingham and other historians are willing to release her from the imputation. Edward died in the forty-third year of his age, and was buried privately in the abbey of Gloucester

1327.—EDWARD III., REIGNED 50 YEARS, 4 MONTHS, 15 DAYS.

The parliament by which Edward III., at the age of fifteen years, was raised to the throne, had, during the life of his father, appointed twelve persons as his privy council. On his assuming the reins of government, at the age of eighteen, Mortimer, the queen-mother's favourite, who had rendered himself odious to the barons and the people, was hanged at Tyburn, and the Queen herself, as a just retribution for her infamous conduct towards her unfortunate husband, was confined for life. Edward soon after engaged in a war with the Scots, and after defeating them with immense slaughter, he overran all Scotland, obliging their king to flee to France, and setting up Baliol II. as King of Scotland, who did homage for his kingdom. He next turned his victorious arms against France, asserting his right to that kingdom against Philip of Valois, in virtue of his mother, Isabella, sister to the deceased king. The first great advantage gained by the English was in a naval engagement off the coast of Flanders, in which the French lost 230 ships, and had 30,000 of their seamen and two admirals slain. Edward's invasion, and the devastation of his troops, spread terror through all France. Caen was taken and plundered; the villages and towns to the very gates of Paris shared the same fate. Philip, the French king, was not idle in making his dispositions to repel the enemy. He stationed one of his generals with an army on the opposite side of the Somme, over which Edward was to pass, while at the head of 100,000 men he advanced to give the enemy battle.

Both armies were now in sight of each other, and though the forces of the English were greatly inferior to the French, Edward was resolved to indulge the impetuosity of his troops, and put all to the hazard of a battle. He chose his ground with advantage, near the village of Cressy, and there determined to resist the shock of the enemy. He drew up his men in three lines; the first was commanded by the young Prince of Wales, the second by the Earls of Northampton and Arundel, and the third, as a reserve, was headed by himself in person. Philip, on the other side, impelled by resentment, and confident in his numbers, was more

eager to bring the English to an engagement, than prudent in taking measures for its success. He led on his army in three bodies, opposite to those of the English: the first consisted of 15,000 Genoese cross-bowmen; the second was led by the King's brother; and Philip was at the head of the third. (A.D. 1346.)

About three in the afternoon the famous battle of Cressy began, by the King's ordering the Genoese archers to charge; but they were so fatigued with their march, that they called out for a little rest before they engaged. The Count D'Alençon, informed of their petition, rode up and reviled them as cowards, commanding them to begin the onset without delay. Their reluctance to engage was still further increased by a heavy shower, which fell that instant, and relaxed their bow-strings, so that the discharge produced little effect. On the other hand, the English archers, who had kept their bows in cases, let fly their arrows so quickly and with such good aim, that nothing was to be seen among the Genoese, but hurry, terror, and dismay. The young Prince of Wales, with admirable presence of mind, taking advantage of their confusion, led on his line to the charge. The French cavalry, however, under the Count D'Alençon, wheeling round, sustained the combat and began to hem the English in. The Earls of Northampton and Arundel immediately came to the assistance of the Prince, who appeared foremost in the shock, and wherever he appeared turned the fortune of the day. The thickest of the battle was gathered round him, and the valour of a boy filled even veterans with astonishment. From the apprehension, however, that some mischance might happen to him in the end, an officer was dispatched to the king, desiring that succours might be sent to the Prince's relief. Edward, who had all this time, with great tranquillity, viewed the engagement from a windmill, inquired with seeming deliberation whether his son was dead; but on the assurance that he still lived, and was giving astonishing instances of his valour, "Then, tell my generals," replied the King, "that he shall have no assistance from me: the honour of the day shall be his." This reply inspired the Prince and his attendants with new courage. They made a fresh

attack upon the French cavalry, in which Count D'Alençon was killed. This was the beginning of their total overthrow. The whole army took to flight, and were put to the sword by their pursuers without mercy Never was victory less bloody to the English. The conquerors lost but one esquire, two knights, and a few of inferior rank; 30,000 of the French were left dead on the field of battle, among whom were the Duke of Lorraine and the King of Bohemia. The fate of the latter is remarkable: though blind, being told that the battle went against them, "Lead me," said he, "into the hottest part of the battle, that I also may have a stroke at the English." Four knights accordingly rushed with him into the thickest of the enemy, and were immediately slain. Edward lost no time in improving his victory; he marched to Calais, which, after a brave struggle of a twelve months' siege, amidst all the horrors of famine, was taken.

Whilst Edward was pursuing his victories in France, the Scots, taking advantage of his absence, invaded the frontiers. Philippa, Edward's queen, prepared to repulse the enemy. At Neville's Cross the armies encountered each other. The Scots were entirely routed, with the loss of 15,000 men killed on the field of battle; and David Bruce, their king, was made prisoner, with a great number of his nobles and knights.

The truce which had been made between Edward and Philip being ended by the death of the latter, who was succeeded by his son John, both parties prepared for a renewal of the war. The battle of Poictiers followed soon after, in which Edward the black Prince took John prisoner, and led him in triumph to London. Two kings, prisoners at the same time, was considered a very glorious event; but glory was all that England gained by it. Whatever was won in France, at the expense of so much danger, blood, and treasure, was, from the impossibility of continuing such enormous supplies, successively lost, even without the mortification of a defeat. But what most sensibly affected the king, and cast a gloom upon the whole nation, was the death of the Black Prince, who had been wasting away for a considerable time under a cruel consumptive disorder, which carried him off in the forty-sixth year of his age,

leaving behind him a character without a blemish, and a regret among the people that time could not easily efface. The king did not long survive, dying about a year after, at Sheene, in Surrey, in the sixty-fifth year of his age.

1377.—RICHARD II., REIGNED 22 YEARS, 2 MONTHS, 2 DAYS.

RICHARD II., son of the Black Prince, was but eleven years old when he began to reign. The government of the kingdom was entrusted to a council of nine persons, who were, however, secretly directed by the three uncles of the king, the dukes of Lancaster, York, and Gloucester, but particularly by the first. War had been carried on between France and England, after the death of Edward III., but in so languishing a manner, as served only to exhaust the finances of both kingdoms. In order to repair the expenses of these fruitless expeditions, the English Parliament imposed a poll-tax of three groats on each person, male or female, above the age of fifteen. The inequality and injustice of this tax were obvious to the meanest capacity, while the inexorable manner in which it was levied, made it yet more grievous. The discontents of the populace were at the highest pitch, when the following incident kindled them into a flame. The tax-gatherers went to the house of one Wat Tyler, a blacksmith, in Essex, and demanded payment for his daughter: which he refused, alleging that she was under the age mentioned in the act. The brutal collector attempting a very villainous proof of the contrary, the father knocked out the ruffian's brains with his hammer; the by-standers applauded the action, and exclaiming, that it was full time for the people to take vengeance on their tyrants, immediately flew to arms. The flame in an instant spread over that and the adjacent counties; and the populace, headed by Wat Tyler, committed the most outrageous violence upon such of the nobility and gentry as fell into their hands. At length 100,000 of them assembled on Blackheath, whence they proceeded to London. The king, passing along Smithfield with a small guard, met with Wat Tyler at the head of the insurgents, and entered into a conference with him Tyler ordering his companions to halt, ventured into

the midst of the royal retinue, where he behaved with such insolence, often putting his hand to his dagger, that Walworth, Mayor of London, struck him to the ground, where he was instantly despatched by one of the king's attendants. The mutineers, seeing their leader fall, prepared for revenge, and the king with the whole company would certainly have been victims to their fury, had not Richard discovered an extraordinary presence of mind on the occasion. Accosting the enraged multitude with an affable and intrepid countenance, he said, "Are you angry, my good people, because you have lost your leader? I, your king, will be your leader, follow me." The populace, confused and overawed by his presence, implicitly followed him into the fields, where, on the appearance of a body of well-armed veterans, who had been secretly drawn together, they peaceably separated, upon the king's granting them a charter of redress for their grievances, which, however, was disannulled soon after by parliament.

Had Richard been a prince of real abilities, he might now have established the tranquillity of his dominions on a sure foundation; but he delivered himself up to worthless favourites, which soon produced animosity between him and the princes of the blood and the barons. The Duke of Gloucester, perceiving the mischief which the conduct of his nephew might occasion, formed a party against the favourite. Richard, however had the duke seized and conveyed to Calais, where he was privately strangled. He was now upon the point of becoming more despotic than ever, when he lost his crown and his life by a sudden catastrophe. A quarrel had arisen between the Earl of Derby, son of John of Gaunt, lately created Duke of Hereford, and the Duke of Norfolk; Richard banished them both, with particular marks of injustice to the former, who soon became Duke of Lancaster by his father's death. While the king was quelling an insurrection in Ireland, the wishes of the nation were gratified by the appearance of his exiled cousin, who landed at Ravenspur, in Yorkshire, and was soon at the head of 60,000 men. Richard hastened back to England, where his troops refusing to fight, and his subjects, whom he had affected to despise, deserting him, he was made prisoner

with twenty of his attendants. He was immediately conducted to London, deposed in full Parliament, and the Duke of Lancaster proclaimed in his stead, by the name of Henry IV. As to Richard, it was long the prevailing opinion that Sir Piers Exton and others of his guards fell upon him in the castle of Pomfret, in which he was confined, and where, after bravely killing four of his assailants, he was murdered by Sir Piers, who, getting behind him, struck him down with a pole-axe. It is more probable, however, that he was starved to death. He died in the thirty-fourth year of his age, 1399.

CHAPTER II.

ECCLESIASTICAL AFFAIRS, &c.

Among the many controversies which arose with regard to ecclesiastical government during the reign of Henry II., the most important was that for which St. Thomas à Becket lost his life. Thomas à Becket was the son of Gilbert, one of the principal citizens of London, and a particular friend of Archbishop Theobald. Gilbert, at an early age, made a pilgrimage to Jerusalem, and falling into the hands of the Saracens, became a slave to one of their emirs. An only daughter of this emir hearing him one day explain the Christian faith, and declare his readiness to die for it, was so moved as to form upon the spot the resolution to become a Christian. Gilbert and his companions soon after made their escape during the night, and returned in safety to London. The young Syrian lady privately left her father's house, and, by the repetition of the word London, found her way marvellously by land and sea to that city, where she had no other resource than that of crying through the streets Gilbert, the name of him she so greatly esteemed, and the only European word besides London with which the forlorn damsel of Syria was acquainted. After many adventures, she was at last recognized by the faithful Gilbert; and being instructed in the faith, was baptized by the name of Maud, and married to him in St. Paul's church, by the

Bishop of London. Thomas was born a year after this marriage, and when arrived at man's estate, was taken into the household of Archbishop Theobald. Receiving holy orders, he rose to the office of Archdeacon of Canterbury. The Archbishop committed to his care the most intricate affairs, and never had reason to repent the confidence he reposed in him. The office of Chancellor becoming vacant, Theobald recommended Becket to the king, who readily exalted him to that dignity, and was so highly pleased with his abilities, that he committed to him the education of his son Henry. Amidst all these honours, he lived humble, mortified, recollected, and chaste, and triumphed over all the snares which wicked courtiers, and even the king himself, laid for his virtue. Theobald, the Archbishop, dying in 1160, King Henry resolved to raise Becket to that dignity, who, after various excuses, thus plainly addressed his majesty: "Should God permit me to be Archbishop of Canterbury, I should soon lose your Majesty's favour; for your Majesty will be pleased to suffer me to tell you, that your infringements of the rights of the Church make me fear you would require of me more than I could conscientiously concede." The king, however, paid no regard to his remonstrances, and he was elected in 1162. The storm which Becket had foreseen, now began to gather and burst upon him. His first offence was, the resignation of the office of chancellor. He next incurred the royal displeasure by resisting the king's usurpation of the revenues of the vacant sees, and other benefices, that he might enjoy the temporalities, as several of his predecessors had done. A third cause of offence, was, his refusing to allow lay judges to summon ecclesiastical persons before their tribunal. The king, highly enraged at this opposition, summoned an assembly of the bishops and barons at Northampton, where sentence was pronounced against him, and all his property confiscated to the king. Becket referred his cause to the Pope, who was then in France, whither he accordingly repaired, and in an audience fully justified himself against the ambassadors sent by Henry to accuse him. Upon this, Henry vented his passion against the Pope and the Archbishop, and confiscated the goods of all the friends, relatives,

and domestics of the obnoxious prelate. At last, however, a reconciliation was brought about, and St. Thomas returned to England. As he approached Southampton, the clergy, the laity, men of all ranks and ages, went forth to meet him, and celebrated his entry with hymns of exultation. But it was not long before the enemies of Becket began again to alienate the king from him, by rousing his former jealousies. On his arrival in England, the Archbishop of York, in a threatening manner, demanded absolution from the censures passed upon him and his associates; and upon Becket's refusal, carried his complaints to the king. Henry, in a transport of fury, cried out that he had no friends near him, or he could not have been so long exposed to the insults of an ungrateful hypocrite. These words, which were heard by the whole court, induced four of the kings' attendants to rid him of the prelate. On Christmas-day the Archbishop preached to his flock, and ended with declaring that he should shortly leave them, for the time of his death was at hand. All wept bitterly at these words, and St. Thomas himself could not refrain from tears. The four assassins at length arrived at Canterbury, and entering the cathedral whilst the archbishop was at vespers, called out, "Where is the traitor?" As no answer was returned, another exclaimed, "Where is the archbishop?" when the prelate advancing, replied, "Here is the archbishop, but no traitor." Upon this one of the assassins, named Tracy, struck at his head with a sword: but an ecclesiastic, named Edward Gwin, warded off the blow with his arm, which was almost cut off. Two others immediately fell upon him with their weapons, and he was now expiring from his wounds, when the fourth, Richard Barton, cut off the top of his skull, and scattered his brains on the pavement. (A. D. 1170.)

Nothing could exceed the king's consternation when the tidings of this melancholy event arrived: he shut himself up for three days, taking scarcely any nourishment, and for forty days he never went abroad. He sent deputies to the pope, to assure him that he had neither ordered nor intended the execrable murder; he swore to abolish the laws on which he had grounded his usurpations, and restored all the lands and reve-

nues of the church; and, to procure peace to his mind, and make what atonement he could for the scandal he had given, he resolved to make a pilgrimage to St. Thomas's shrine at Canterbury. When he came within a league of the city, he dismounted from his horse, and putting on a coarse woollen garment, walked barefooted the remainder of the way. When he reached the tomb, he threw himself upon the ground, shedding a flood of tears; and, to render his humiliation still more remarkable, he ordered the monks and clergy to scourge him with whips. Having spent the remainder of the night in prayer, and in the morning attended at the sacrifice of the mass, he bestowed very rich presents and lands upon the church of Canterbury and returned to London.

In the reign of John, a dispute arose with Pope Innocent III., who had nominated to the see of Canterbury Stephen Langton, a prelate thoroughly qualified for that dignity, but not approved of by the king. This quarrel came to such a height, that several bishops were banished, and their revenues confiscated to the crown. Not only the bishops, but also the whole body of the clergy and religious were greatly oppressed. When the pope found that John was deaf to all his entreaties on the subject he excommunicated him, and put the whole kingdom under an interdict. The king, finding himself in very critical circumstances, recalled the bishops by the persuasion of Pandulphus, the pope's legate, and reinstated them in their possessions. But he now ran into the other extreme; and, whether with a view to bind the pope more closely to his interests in case of an attack from France, or to provide against any insurrection of his people at home, by an unparalleled instance of folly and injustice he executed a public instrument, by which he made his kingdoms of England and Ireland tributary to the pope and his successors: thus violating the oath he had taken at his coronation, to maintain the liberties both of church and state. Neither the bishops, the clergy, nor the nation in general, would, however, brook this subjection to the see of Rome. The bishops, in particular, complained loudly of the abuses to which this dependence gave birth.

These grievances had arisen to so high a pitch in the reign of Henry III., that the people became greatly exasperated, and it was determined to send a representation to the pope, wherein it was stated, that the church of England was so overawed by foreigners, who stepped into the best preferments by papal provisions, that patrons were deprived of their right of presenting, the revenues were spent abroad, the cure of souls was neglected, and studies languished, because the English youth had no encouragement to qualify themselves for the dignities of the church. It concluded with intimating the authority the king might claim, if he were not disposed to be complaisant to the holy see.

Among the many bishops eminent for sanctity, who opposed the court of Rome in this great contest concerning papal provisions, may be reckoned Richard Withershed, Archbishop of Canterbury, who expressed himself with great force on the king's admitting such a number of Italians into the best benefices. St Edmond, also, Archbishop of Canterbury, who possessed the talents of a scholar, and the virtues of the most pious, was so zealous in the cause, that it gave him great anxiety, and ultimately obliged him to retire and end his days in a kind of banishment. Robert Greathead, bishop of Lincoln, though he ever professed great veneration for the successors of St. Peter, yet boldly refused institution to foreign clergymen presented to benefices in his diocese. He even took a journey to Rome, to remonstrate against these abuses; which produced such effect upon the mind of the pontiff, as to make him seriously set about remedying the defect.

1118. About this time the mendicant orders began to make their appearance in England. The first convent of grey friars was at Canterbury, and another was soon after established in London. Nearly at the same time was suppressed the famous religious order of Knights Templars, and their lands were bestowed upon the Knights of St. John of Jerusalem. The statute made for this purpose is worthy of remark, and runs thus: "It is agreed, ordained, and established by law for ever, that neither our Lord the King, nor any other Lord, nor any other person, hath title or right to retain the aforesaid lands." And the reasons alleged for not

alienating them were, "Because such a conveyance would not discharge the obligations which lay upon them, which were to defend Christianity, provide largely for the poor, and pray for souls departed." Had Henry VIII. at the dissolution of the monasteries attended to this, it might perhaps have raised a scruple in his mind.

During the wars of Edward I. with the Scots, Pope Boniface interfered, and demanded that the bishops, abbots, and nobles, who had been made prisoners by Edward, should be released. The letters of Edward in answer, seconded by those from the barons, clearly shew what were the sentiments of our ancestors with regard to the interference of the see of Rome in temporal matters. In them they informed the pope, that Edward owed no submission to him in such cases; that the kings of England never were nor ever would be subject to any foreign power, either spiritual or temporal, in matters purely civil; but as to obedience in things spiritual, they acknowledged themselves devoted to the see of Rome.

The papal revenues, which were the source of mutual complaints and recriminations, still continued. They may be classed under three heads: first, Peter Pence, a tax established under the Saxons, of one penny on every householder possessed of thirty-pence in chattels, intended for the relief of English pilgrims; second, the grant made by John of 1,000 marks, as an acknowledgement of vassalage, and therefore odious to the nation. This not having been regularly paid by John's successors, had considerably accumulated, till at last Pope Urban V. signified, that if the arrears were not paid, he would enter a process in his court for recovery of the penalties. Edward upon this called a parliament, and communicated the papal demand. The prelates consulted together, and returned for answer, that neither John, nor any other person, could subject the kingdom to another power without the consent of the nation. In this the barons and commons unanimously agreed, and it was resolved, that if the pope attempted to put his threat in execution, they would resist him to the utmost of their power. Upon this determination the question was abandoned by the pope for ever.

First-fruits was the third grievance; this was a gift made by the bishop upon his consecration, and the

priest at his ordination, to the officiating prelates and attendants. In some dioceses it was exacted from even the inferior clergy, in the court of Rome, at every promotion obtained by papal provisions, and the amount at last arose to two, and even three years' income. These claims became from time to time the subject of parliamentary investigation; various statutes were enacted, which in the end entirely put a stop to them.

About the year 1375, John Wycliffe first began to broach his new doctrines. He had received his education at Oxford, and was a man of considerable learning, but of much greater pride and ambition. He had been disappointed in not getting the bishopric of Worcester, to which he aspired. His pride was hurt, and his temper soured; he therefore commenced reformer, and promulgated his novelties, some of which were, that in the Blessed Eucharist, the substance of the bread and wine remains after consecration; that a bishop in mortal sin cannot ordain; that the pope, if wicked, has no authority over the faithful; that auricular confessions are unnecessary; that the clergy ought to have no temporal possessions. These doctrines soon attracted the notice of the bishops: they assembled in synod and cited him before them. In his answer, he acknowledged that his expressions were incorrect, and pretended that they must be understood in an orthodox sense. He promised in future not to disturb the public peace, and being strongly countenanced by John of Gaunt, Duke of Lancaster, the mortal enemy of the clergy, he was suffered to depart without further censure; but ceased not to disseminate his heresy, till a paralytic attack suddenly hurried him out of life. His followers were called Lollards.

CHAPTER III.

LAWS, GOVERNMENT, COMMERCE.

During the reign of Henry II. several wise laws were enacted. The kingdom was divided into six circuits, and to each circuit were appointed three itinerant judges, who were sworn to administer justice. These

circuits were nearly the same as at the present day. In the reign of his son and successor, Richard I., the city of London received many important privileges, and was first divided into companies and corporations. Under the government of Henry III., the difference which arose between the king and the nobles made England a scene of confusion. The people, however, obtained a confirmation of the great charter, with the addition of new privileges. But the liberty of the subject made the greatest progress during the reign of Edward I., a prince who, on account of his numerous and prudent laws, has been called the English Justinian. What renders this era particularly interesting, is the admission of the deputies of boroughs into parliament. In order to raise subsidies to support the wars in which Edward was engaged, he found himself obliged to resort to new resources, and endeavoured to obtain by the consent of the people what his predecessors had exacted by their own power. The sheriffs were ordered to invite the towns and boroughs of the different counties to send deputies to parliament, and from this period we may date the origin of the House of Commons. The great charter was confirmed by King Edward eleven times in the course of his reign; and, at length, he converted into an established law, a privilege, which the nation had hitherto only precariously enjoyed, by decreeing that no tax should be laid on, or impost levied, without the joint consent of Lords and Commons. This most important statute, in conjunction with Magna Charta, forms the basis of the English constitution.

The statute of mortmain was also enacted in this reign, for the purpose of prescribing some bounds to the zeal of our ancestors in alienating their lands to pious uses. It had been found that this custom was liable to several abuses, and that many worthy families had been wholly impoverished in consequence. It was, therefore, enacted, that for the future, no lands should be settled upon any community without the express license of the king and parliament. This statute was not very agreeable to the see of Rome, and was even disapproved of by many learned and pious doctors of the church, though by many others equally

eminent for their zeal, piety, and learning, it was looked upon as a wise and prudent provision.

Under Edward II. the Commons began to annex petitions to the bills in which they granted subsidies. This was the dawn of their legislative authority. In the reign of Edward III., they declared they would not in future acknowledge any law to which they had not expressly consented. Soon after they asserted a privilege, which forms at this time one of the greatest balances of the constitution. They impeached, and procured to be condemned, some of the chief ministers of the state.

The principal manufacture of England, in the era of which we now treat, was that of wool. This she owed to the fostering hand of Edward III., who gave great encouragement to foreign weavers, and enacted a law which prohibited every one from wearing cloth but of English fabric. The manufactures of leather and lead were also considerable.

The greater part of our domestic trade was still transacted at fairs, of which some were of long duration. That of St. Giles, near Winchester, continued sixteen days, during which all trade was prohibited within seven miles of the fair, which very much resembled a great city. In the beginning of the reign of Richard II., the parliament complained of the decay of foreign commerce during the preceding reign, and asserted, that one seaport formerly contained more vessels than were then to be found in the whole kingdom. This calamity they ascribed to the arbitrary seizure of ships by Edward, for the service of his frequent expeditions.

With regard to coin, the third Edward, in 1344, struck florins of gold, which were ordered to pass for 6s., and the halves and quarters in proportion. Finding, however, that he had rated these pieces too highly, he coined the gold noble of 6s. 8d., and recalled the florins.

The police of the kingdom was certainly much improved during this period, particularly in the third Edward's reign; yet were there several defects in the constitution, the bad consequences of which not all the power and vigilance of the king could prevent. The barons, by their confederacies with those of their own order, and by supporting their retainers in all

their iniquity, were the chief abettors of robbers and ruffians of all kinds, and no law could reach them. The Commons made frequent complaints of these robberies, murders, and disorders, in every part of the kingdom, which they always ascribed to the protection the criminals received from the barons. The King of Cyprus, who paid a visit to England in the reign of Edward III., was robbed and stripped on the highway, with the whole of his retinue. The king himself contributed to this dissolution of the laws, by the facility with which he granted pardons to felons at the solicitation of his courtiers.

ARTS, &c.

In the period we are now examining, if we except the possessions of the clergy, very little progress was made in agriculture. The country was almost always involved in wars, which diverted the attention of the people, and particularly of the nobility, from the improvement of their lands. The wretched tenure also by which the inferior farmers held their lands, was an effectual bar to every amendment of the soil. Gardening, under the immediate protection of the great, had better success; every large castle, and every monastery, had its garden, orchard, and frequently its vineyard; so that the English had a considerable quantity of wine of their own growth, not much inferior to foreign wine.

With regard to architecture, many of the most admired cathedrals in England, viz. those of York, Salisbury, and Winchester, owe their existence to this period, which is generally allowed to have produced the truest and fairest models of what is called the lighter Gothic. The steeples with spires and pinnacles, the pillars formed of an assemblage of columns, the lofty windows divided into several lights by stone mullions, and always filled with glass stained with lively colours, stamp the sacred edifices of the thirteenth and fourteenth centuries. This rapid progress in architectural elegance was greatly assisted by a band of ingenious workmen from various countries, who, forming themselves into societies under the title of "freemasons," offered their services to opulent princes.

So great and general was the taste for paintings at

this period, that not only churches, chapels, and the apartments of the great, but also those of private persons, were ornamented with historical pictures. Of sculpture, although it no doubt kept pace with the sister art, we have but few models, owing to the party zeal of the civil wars and the Gothic barbarity of the first-styled reformers.

Though the poets of this age were as much admired by their contemporaries as those who flourished in later times, their works are generally neglected; which is perhaps owing as much to the antiquated style in which they wrote as to the mediocrity of their talents.

MANNERS.

Of the age we are now delineating, one of the prominent features was unlimited hospitality. The courts of some of our kings were magnificent and numerous to a degree hardly credible. Stowe thus describes that of Richard II.:—"His royalty was such, that whereso-ever he lay, his person was guarded by 200 Cheshire men; he had about him thirteen bishops, besides barons, knights, esquires, and others; insomuch, that 10,000 people came to the household for meat every day, as appeared by the messes told out to 200 servitors." Some idea may be formed of the hospitality of the opulent barons, from an account of the household expenses of the Earl of Lancaster in 1213, from which it appears that this nobleman expended in housekeeping during that year no less a sum than £7,300, equal to £100,000 of our present money. The nobility in general spent almost the whole of their revenues in this manner, at their castles in the country, which were constantly open to strangers of condition, as well as to their own vassals and followers. This prodigality began to decline a little towards the end of this period; some barons, instead of dining in their great hall with their numerous retainers according to ancient custom, chose to dine in private parlours with their families and friends; though this innovation was very unpopular, and subjected them who adopted it to much ill-will and reproach.

The revival of chivalry by the Edwards, contributed not a little to promote valour and munificence among

persons of condition. The candidate for knighthood, after giving sufficient proofs of his prowess and other virtues, prepared himself by fasting, going to confession, and communion, with other acts of devotion. He then took an oath of no fewer than twenty-six articles, in which, among other things, he swore that he would be a good, brave, loyal, just, and generous knight, a champion of the church, a protector of distressed females, and a redressor of the wrongs of widows and orphans.

Chivalry declined in England during the inglorious reigns of King John and Henry III., but revived in the succeeding one, particularly in that of Edward III., who in this was influenced by policy no less than by inclination. Having formed the design of asserting his claim to the crown of France, he endeavoured to inspire into his own subjects an enterprising spirit, and to entice as many valiant foreigners into his service as possible. With this view he celebrated several magnificent tournaments, to which he invited all strangers who delighted in feats of arms, entertained them with the greatest hospitality, and loaded such of them as excelled in these martial sports with honours and rewards, in order to attach them to his service: with the like view, and about the same time, he founded the order of the Garter, of which his heroic son the Black Prince was the first knight, and all the first companions were persons famous for their feats at tournaments, or in real war. In a word, chivalry, which is now an object of ridicule, was in those times an affair of the greatest moment, and had no small influence on the manners of the age and fate of the nation.

The ridiculous and motley dress of this period was very justly a subject of bitter reprehension from the satirists of the time. What could exhibit a more fantastical appearance than an English beau of the fourteenth century? He wore long pointed shoes, fastened to his knees by gold or silver chains, a stocking of one colour on one leg and one of another colour on the other; short breeches which did not reach to the middle of his thighs; a coat, one half black, the other half white or blue; a long beard; a silk hood, buttoned under his chin, embroidered with grotesque figures of animals, and ornamented with gold, silver, or precious stones. This dress was the

height of the fashion in the reign of Edward III. The dress of the ladies is thus described by Knyghton :— "The tournaments are attended by many ladies of the first rank and greatest beauty dressed in party-coloured tunics. Their tippets are very short, their caps remarkably small and wrapt about their heads with cords. Their girdles are ornamented with gold and silver, and they wear short swords, like daggers, before them, which hang across their stomachs. They are mounted on the finest horses with the richest furniture, and thus equipped, they ride from place to place, in quest of tournaments, by which they dissipate their fortunes, and often ruin their reputations."

In the course of the fourteenth century, the Anglo-Saxon gradually changed into what may be called the English language. That animosity which had long subsisted between the posterity of the Normans and that of the Anglo-Saxons was now extinguished, and they were in a great measure consolidated into one people. Many of the Normans who were engaged in trade, agriculture, or manufactures, found it necessary to speak the language of the multitude, into which they introduced many French words and idioms. Besides this, Chaucer, Gower, and several others, composed a number of volumes in English; and being men of learning, borrowed many expressions from the Greek and Latin, Italian and French languages, with which they enriched their own. But the mode of spelling was unsettled and very different from the modern. Many words were then in common use which are now become obsolete, and the meaning of others very different from what it is at present. A knave, for example, signified a servant in opposition to a freeman; and sometimes a male in opposition to a female ; its modern meaning is well known.

INCIDENTS AND CURIOUS PARTICULARS.

In 1246, Cheapside was a void space called Crown Field, from the Crown Inn adjoining. The city lay more to the eastward.

In 1283, says the annals of Dunstable, "we sold our slave by birth, William Pike, with all his family, and received one mark from the buyer."

In 1302, the mariner's compass was invented.

In 1316, on account of the great famine, the parliament limited the price of provisions. An ox cost £2 8s. a fat hog, 10s.; a sheep, 3s. 6d.; a fat goose, 1½d.; a fat capon, 6d.; a fat hen, 3d.; two dozen eggs, 3d.

In 1327, Southwark, having long been an asylum for rogues and vagabonds, was united to London, and placed under the power of the Lord Mayor and Aldermen.

In 1340, guns were first invented by Schwartz, a monk of Cologne, as gunpowder had been some time before by our famous countryman Roger Bacon.

In 1346, Edward III. had four pieces of cannon, which contributed to gain the famous battle of Cressy. Bombs and mortars were invented about the same time.

In 1386, was built the magnificent castle of Windsor, by Edward III., and his method of conducting the work may serve as a specimen of the condition of the people in that age. Instead of engaging workmen by contracts and wages, he assessed every county in England, to send him a certain number of masons, tilers, carpenters, &c.

BOOK VI.

THE HOUSE OF LANCASTER.

From the Deposition of Richard II. to that of Henry VI., including a period of about 86 years.

CHAPTER I.

HENRY IV., REIGNED 13 YEARS, 5 MONTHS, 21 DAYS.

1399.—HENRY, in possession of the great object of his ambition in prejudice to the elder branches of his family, soon found it was more easy to win a crown than to preserve it. For several years he was continually harassed, either by the hostility of foreign powers, who looked upon him as a usurper, or by the secret plots of his own subjects, some of whom longed to avenge the fate of Richard; or by others who had

aided him in the acquisition of his throne, and thought themselves neglected. In Wales, Owen Glendower, descended from the ancient princes of that country, had become obnoxious on account of his attachment to the late king, and Lord de Grey, who had a great fortune in the marches of Wales, availed himself of that circumstance to seize upon his neighbour's estate. Glendower recovered possession by the sword. Henry sent assistance to Lord de Grey, while the Welsh took part with Glendower, and a tedious war was kindled, in which the Welsh chieftain gave remarkable proofs of his bravery and activity

The Scots, taking advantage of these discontents, renewed their incursions. Archibald, Earl of Douglass, on his return from one of these border inroads, was overtaken by the Percies. A bloody battle ensued; the Scots were totally routed, and Douglass himself, with many of the nobility and gentry, were taken prisoners. When Henry received intelligence of his victory, he sent a message to the earl, not to receive ransom for his prisoners, intending to detain them, in order to conclude an advantageous peace with Scotland. But the earl, according to the laws of war in that age, regarding them as his right, was greatly disgusted at the message, and the more so, as he considered himself the principal person to whom Henry was indebted for the crown. The impatient spirit of his son Henry Percy, surnamed Hotspur, and the factious disposition of the Earl of Worcester, inflamed still more the resentment of the earl. He immediately entered into a conspiracy with Glendower, gave liberty to Earl Douglass, with whom he made an alliance, and roused all his friends to arms. But on account of the earl's real or political illness, young Percy took the command of the troops, and marched towards Shrewsbury, in order to join his forces to those of Glendower. The king, with a few chosen troops, met Percy near Shrewsbury, before his intended junction with Glendower. The policy of the one leader and the impetuosity of the other, immediately brought on a battle. On the preceding evening, Percy published a manifesto, in which, after renouncing his allegiance, he enumerated all the grievances of the nation. Among these, he charged him with usurpation on the house of Mortimer, who had a prior right to the throne.

being the immediate descendant of Lionel, Duke of Clarence, the elder brother of the late Duke of Lancaster.

The armies were nearly equal in number, consisting of about 12,000 men each, and we scarcely find any battle in those ages, where the shock was more terrible, or the conflict more obstinate. Henry exposed his person in the thickest of the fight. His gallant son, the Prince of Wales, whose military achievements were afterwards so renowned, and who here performed his noviciate in arms, signalized himself greatly, and, though wounded in the face by an arrow, would not quit the field. On the other side, Percy well supported that fame which he had acquired in many a bloody combat, and was nobly seconded by Douglass amidst the horror and confusion of the day. But while the armies were contending in this furious and equal contest, the death of Percy, by an arrow from an unknown hand, decided the victory in favour of the royalists.

The Earl of Northumberland was on his march to join his son, when he heard of his defeat. He immediately dismissed his forces, and, with a small retinue, went to the king at York, pretending that his sole intention in arming, was to mediate between the parties. Henry appeared satisfied with this excuse, and granted him pardon. Unable, however, to repress his enmity to the king, the earl, afterwards, joined in a fresh rebellion, and at length lost his life in the cause.

Henry, thus freed, by the death of Northumberland and that of Glendower, which happened soon after, from all his domestic enemies, endeavoured to regain the popularity he had lost by his severe measures. The House of Commons, upon this occasion, became sensible of their own importance, and began to assume powers which had not usually been exercised by their predecessors. Among other advances of this kind, in the sixth year of Henry's reign, when they voted him supplies, they appointed treasurers of their own, to see that the money was disbursed for the purpose intended. Henry died at Westminster, in the forty-sixth year of his age, leaving behind him the reputation of a prudent and political prince, but of a suspicious and unfeeling character. He had by his first wife, Mary de Bohun, daughter of the Earl of Hereford, four sons, viz. Henry,

his successor; Thomas, Duke of Clarence; John, Duke of Bedford; Humphrey, Duke of Gloucester; and two daughters. His second wife, Jane, daughter of the King of Navarre, had no issue.

HENRY V., REIGNED 9 YEARS, 4 MONTHS, 11 DAYS.

1413.—Henry V. succeeded to the throne. He had for a considerable time been the object of his father's suspicions, arising from his own dissolute life, and the jealous disposition of Henry. His active spirit, unemployed in affairs of state, broke out into the wildest extravagance of riot and debauchery, which threw him among companions totally unworthy of his rank and station. One of these associates had been indicted before Sir William Gascoigne, the chief justice, for disorderly conduct; and Henry was not ashamed to appear at the bar with the criminal, to give him countenance and protection. Finding that his presence did not overawe the judge, he proceeded to insult him on his tribunal. But Gascoigne, mindful of his dignity, ordered the prince to be immediately committed, and Henry had the magnanimity at once to submit peaceably to the sentence. All this time the nation in general had considered the young prince with more indulgence than his father, and had observed so many gleams of generosity and spirit, breaking through his misconduct, that they never lost hopes of his ultimate reformation.

The first step taken by the young king, confirmed those prepossessions in his favour. He immediately dismissed the companions of his dissolute courses, and received the wise ministers of his father, who had checked his riots, with all the marks of favour and confidence. As it was the dying request of the late king not to allow the English to remain long at peace, which was apt to breed internal commotion, Henry determined to take advantage of the confusion which reigned in France through the contentions of the Dukes of Orleans and Burgundy, each of whom aspired to the administration of affairs. He accordingly assembled a large fleet and army at Southampton, in order to invade that kingdom, and landed near Harfleur, at the head of 6,000 men-at-arms, and 24,000 foot, mostly archers.

Harfleur was immediately besieged, and taken, after

a vigorous resistance; but the unusual heat of the weather, and the fatigues of the siege, had so wasted the English army, that Henry could enter on no further enterprise, and was obliged to think of returning to England. As he had dismissed his transports, he lay under the necessity of marching to Calais; and while he was pursuing this route, continually harassed by the enemy, his provisions cut off, and his soldiers languishing with sickness and fatigue, he was overtaken by the whole French army, consisting of ten times the number of his diminished force, under the command of the constable D'Albert, drawn up on the plains of Agincourt, (A. D. 1415.) Henry's situation was now exactly similar to that of Edward at Cressy, and of the Black Prince at Poictiers. The memory of those great events inspired the English with courage, in the hope of a like deliverance from their present difficulties. As the enemy was so superior in numbers, Henry drew up his army on a narrow ground between two woods to cover each flank, and patiently awaited in that position the fury of the attack. Had the French general declined the combat, the English must have relinquished the advantages of their situation. But the impetuous valour of their nobility, and a vain confidence in their superior numbers, brought on an action, which proved glorious to the English arms. The battle began by a shower of arrows from the English archers, which did great execution. The French cavalry advancing to repel them, two hundred bowmen, who lay till then concealed, rising on a sudden, let fly among them, and produced such confusion, that the archers threw by their arrows, and rushing in among them sword in hand, obliged them immediately to give way. In every part of the field they were overthrown, and their numbers becoming crowded together in a narrow space, they were incapable of resistance or flight, so that the ground was covered with heaps of slain. After all appearance of opposition was over, an alarm was heard in the camp which proceeded from a number of peasants who had fallen upon the English baggage, and were putting the unarmed followers of the camp to the sword. Henry, seeing the enemy on all sides, began to entertain apprehensions from his prisoners, the num-

ber of whom exceeded that of his whole army. He thought it necessary to issue orders for putting them to death. But on discovering the certainty of his victory, he stopped the slaughter, and was still able to save a great number. In this battle, celebrated by the name of the battle of Agincourt, the killed amounted to 10,000 men, and 14,000 were made prisoners, while the loss of the English did not amount to more than forty-six. Henry, without discontinuing his march a moment, carried his prisoners to Calais, and thence to England.

France was at this period in a wretched situation; the whole kingdom appeared as one vast theatre of crimes, murders, injustice, and devastation. The Duke of Orleans was assassinated by the Duke of Burgundy, and the Duke of Burgundy, in his turn, by the treachery of the Dauphin. Upon the death of the Dauphin, the Count Armagnac, a nobleman of great talents, succeeded to the administration of affairs. Anxious to recover Harfleur, he would not listen to any proposals of peace which was attempted to be mediated by the Emperor Sigismund, of Austria, and other princes, but with a fleet of French and Genoese vessels he blockaded the harbour of that town, and closely invested it on the land side. The Duke of Bedford was sent with a fleet of English vessels to relieve the place. He bore down on the enemy; but finding his vessels greatly inferior in size to those of the Genoese, he gave orders to board. The English instantly climbing the lofty sides of the enemy's ships, soon drove them from the deck, and made themselves masters of their vessels. Most of the French ships had already struck, a few escaped up the river, and the town was relieved.

Such was the state of affairs in France when Henry landed in Normandy, at the head of 25,000 men, and after reducing several places, threatened Paris, whence the terror of his arms had obliged the French court to remove to Troyes. The imbecility into which Charles had fallen, rendering him passive in every transaction, a treaty was entered into, wherein it was agreed, that Henry should espouse the Princess Catherine, daughter of the King of France; that Charles, during his life, should enjoy the title of king; that Henry should be acknowledged heir of the monarchy,

and be intrusted with the present administration of the government, and that the kingdom should pass to his heirs general. In a few days after Henry espoused Catherine, and carrying his father-in-law to Paris, took possession of that capital. He then turned his arms against the dauphin, who had assumed the style and title of regent, and to crown his good fortune, his queen was delivered of a son, whose birth was celebrated at Paris by rejoicings no less pompous than at London. The infant king seemed to be universally regarded as the future heir of both monarchies. But the glory of Henry, when it had nearly reached its summit, was stopt short by the hand of Providence. He was seized by a disorder which the surgeons of that time had not skill enough to cure, and died in the thirty-fourth year of his age.

This prince possessed many eminent virtues. His abilities appeared equally in the field and in the cabinet. He had the talent of attaching his friends by affability, and of gaining his enemies by address and clemency. The English, dazzled by the lustre of his character, were reconciled to the defects in his title; and the French, by his marriage with Catherine, the daughter of their king, almost forgot that he had been their enemy. He left by his queen only one son, not quite nine months old, who succeeded to the throne. Catherine, soon after his death, married Sir Owen Tudor, a Welsh gentleman, by whom she had two sons; the elder was created Earl of Richmond, and the second Earl of Pembroke. The family of Tudor, first raised to distinction by this alliance, afterwards mounted the throne of England.

HENRY VI., REIGNED 38 YEARS, 6 MONTHS, 4 DAYS.

1422.—Henry VI., surnamed of Windsor, being a minor, the affairs of the government were conducted by his two uncles, the Dukes of Bedford and Gloucester, men of great courage, integrity, and accomplishments, but unable to preserve their brother's conquests. Upon the death of Charles VI. the affections of the French for his family revived in the person of his son and successor Charles VII., who was crowned at Chartres, Rheims being in possession of the English. The

war was immediately recommenced with fresh vigour; many battles were fought, generally to the advantage of the English, who at last laid siege to Orleans; the capture of which would have completed the conquest of France; but a sudden revolution was produced in that kingdom, by means apparently the least likely to be attended with success.

1429.—In a village on the borders of Lorraine lived a country girl, called Joan. This girl had been a servant at a small inn, and in that service had submitted to those hardy employments which fit the body for the fatigues of war. She was of an irreproachable character, and had hitherto testified none of those enterprising qualities which displayed themselves soon after. Whether, however, she really believed that she was inspired from above, or made herself the instrument of some political genius, who took in this manner advantage of the age, she felt or pretended to feel the impulses which she related to the governor of Vancouleur, informing him of her destination by Heaven to free her native country from its fierce invaders. Baudricourt, the governor, treated her, or appeared to do so at first, with neglect, but her importunities at length prevailed he gave her some attendants, who conducted her to the French court. Here it was given out that Joan was actually inspired; that she was able to discover the king among his courtiers, though he had laid aside all the distinctions of royalty; that she had told him some secrets supposed to be known only to himself, and that she had demanded and minutely described a sword in the church of St. Catherine, which she had never seen. In this manner the minds of the soldiers and the people being prepared for her appearance, she was armed cap-à-pie, mounted on a charger, and shewn in that martial dress to the populace and soldiers. She was then taken before the doctors of the university, who declared she had actually received her mission from Heaven. Joan now undertook to raise the siege of Orleans, and ordering all the soldiers to confess themselves, displayed in her hand a consecrated banner, and assured the troops of certain victory. Her confidence raised the spirits of the French soldiers to enthusiasm, and at the same time infused trepidation into the

English. The siege of Orleans was immediately raised, and one victory followed another, till at length the French king was solemnly crowned at Rheims, as Joan had predicted. A tide of success followed the performance of this solemnity; but Joan, who had thrown herself into Compeigne with a body of troops, was taken prisoner in a sally by the Duke of Burgundy, who was besieging that city.

The Duke of Bedford was no sooner informed of her capture, than he purchased her of the Count Vendome, and ordered her to be immediately tried by the ecclesiastical court; who found her guilty of heresy and witchcraft, and sentenced her to be burnt.

After her condemnation, several attempts were made to induce her to acknowledge her imposture: but she remained firm till the fatal day arrived; then, however, yielding to her terrors, she acknowledged with tears her delusion, and was remanded to prison. She, however, relapsed into her former errors, and was, according to the laws of those credulous times, delivered to the executioners, and burnt at the stake. (A. D. 1431.) Here she continued obstinate till she saw the fire kindled at her feet; then she burst into loud screams and exclamations, and was seen in the midst of the flames embracing a crucifix, foretelling, as some French writers mention, the total discomfiture of the English. Be this as it may, the affairs of the English in France became, from that time, totally irretrievable, till at length they had nothing left of all their conquests but Calais.

In proportion as Henry advanced in years, his character more fully displayed itself. Of the most inoffensive and simple manners, but of very slender capacity, he was fitted to be governed by those who surrounded him, and it was easy to foresee that his reign would prove a perpetual minority. As he had now reached the age of manhood, it was necessary to think of choosing him a queen, and each party endeavoured to make him receive one at their hands; it being probable, that this point gained, their influence would be established for ever. The Cardinal of Winchester proved successful, and Henry was married to Margaret of Anjou, daughter of Regnier, titular King of Sicily, Naples, and Jerusalem, descended from a Count of Anjou, who

had left these magnificent titles to his posterity, without any real power or possessions. She immediately entered into close union with the cardinal and his party, who, thus fortified by her powerful interest, resolved upon the downfall of the Duke of Gloucester, who was obnoxious to the queen, upon account of his opposing her marriage. The Duke had already received a cruel mortification from his rivals. His duchess was accused of witchcraft, and condemned to do public penance, after which she was ordered into perpetual imprisonment. The people, however, acquitted the unhappy sufferer, and attributed the whole to the malice of the duke's enemies. The queen and her party, therefore, became sensible, that it was necessary to destroy a man whose popularity made him dangerous, and whose resentment they had so much cause to dread. They contrived to bring an accusation of treason against him, upon which he was arrested, thrown into prison, and the next day found dead in his bed. His body, which bore no outward marks of violence, was publicly exposed; but no one doubted that he had fallen a victim to the vengeance of his enemies. His murder excited general abhorrence, and laid a foundation for the troubles which ensued.

Various commotions, arising from the discontents of the people, broke out, that were soon suppressed; but one took place in Kent which was attended with more serious consequences. Jack Cade, a native of Ireland, a man of low condition, who had been obliged, for his crimes, to flee into France, observing, on his return, this disposition in the people, assumed the name of Mortimer, and, at the head of 20,000 Kentish men, encamped on Blackheath, in his way to the capital, in order, as he gave out, to obtain a redress of grievances. The city opened its gates to him, and for some time he maintained great order and discipline among his followers. But at length, not being able to restrain them from plunder, the citizens, assisted by a detachment from the Tower, repulsed the rebels with great slaughter. The Kentish men were so discouraged by this blow, that upon receiving a general pardon, they retreated towards Rochester, and there dispersed. Cade fled into the woods; but a price being set upon his head

by proclamation, he was discovered by a gentleman in Sussex, and slain. Some of his followers were also capitally punished for their rebellion. It was imagined that the Duke of York had been the secret instigator in this attempt, and his partisans, in all conversations, took occasion to assert his title to the crown; but the duke conducted himself with great prudence, and even when no apparent obstacle lay between him and the throne, he was prevented, by scruples or his fears, from mounting it. In the mean while, the king was seized with a distemper which so far increased his natural imbecility, as to render him incapable of maintaining even the appearance of royalty; upon which the Duke of York got himself appointed lieutenant of the kingdom, with powers to open and hold a parliament. No sooner, however, was Henry so far recovered as to carry the appearance of exercising the royal power, than his queen, a woman of a bold spirit and masculine understanding, advised him to disannul the protectorship of the duke, and place the administration in the hands of the Earl of Somerset. (A. D. 1456.) Richard immediately had recourse to arms, and a battle was fought near St. Alban's, in which the Yorkists proved victorious, and the king himself fell into the hands of the conquerors. This was the first blood spilt in that fatal quarrel between the house of York, designated by the emblem of a white rose, and that of Lancaster by a red one. This fatal contest lasted thirty years, was signalized by twelve pitched battles, cost the lives of eighty princes of the blood, more than 100,000 men, and almost entirely annihilated the ancient nobility of England.

Various were the turns of success during this contest. A battle was fought at Bloreheath, which terminated in favour of the Duke; but Henry, under the direction of Margaret, coming within sight of his foes, who were strongly intrenched before Ludlow, made proclamation that "whoever would abandon the Duke of York should be pardoned." Upon which Sir Andrew Trollope deserted, and discovered all the Duke's plans. This so disconcerted the Yorkists, that they separated without striking a blow. In a third battle, fought at Northampton, the Yorkists, under the command of the

famous Earl of Warwick, and the Earl of March, the duke's son, gained a complete victory, and the king a second time fell into the hands of the victors. The Duke of York, who was then in Ireland, receiving the news of this victory, immediately embarked for England, and throwing off the mask, claimed the crown. After long debates in parliament, it was finally agreed that Henry should continue in possession of the throne till his death, and that on his demise it should devolve to Richard and his heirs.

The Queen, who was in the north at this juncture, refused to submit to a determination so injurious to her son. The Duke of York, therefore, immediately marched to give her battle; but his army was entirely routed, and he himself slain, with many of his bravest followers. The duke's chaplain, who was likewise tutor to his son, seeing the ill success of the day, attempted to escape with his pupil, a child of twelve years old; but Lord Clifford discovering the lad, inhumanly stabbed him to the heart with his dagger.

Upon the death of the Duke of York, Warwick took the command of the forces belonging to that party, and came up with the Queen at St. Alban's. Another battle ensued, in which the earl was defeated, and the king once more fell into the hands of his own party.

Edward, the young Duke of York, now appeared at the head of the cause. This prince was remarkable for his bravery, activity, and affability. He soon found himself so much in the public favour, that he immediately asserted his claim, and assumed the title and dignity of king. Having expelled Margaret from London, he assembled the people, and haranguing them, was proclaimed king by the surrounding multitude, under the title of Edward IV., and the proclamation was ratified by a great number of bishops and lords.

Edward, soon after his coronation, became enamoured of Elizabeth, widow of Sir John Grey, and privately espoused her, although he had sent the Earl of Warwick to demand the sister of the French king in marriage. In this embassy the earl was successful, and nothing remained but to bring the princess to England. Edward was now obliged to declare his marriage, which so inflamed the indignation of Warwick, that from his

best friend and supporter, he became his bitterest enemy. To compass his revenge, he espoused the cause of Henry; and by the assistance of Lewis VI. of France, Henry was again replaced on the throne, whilst Edward narrowly escaped to Holland. Nine months after he returned, was received in the capital, and King Henry was once more made prisoner. Edward now finding himself sufficiently supported to face Warwick, who had taken post at Barnet, marched from London to attack him; and being joined the night before the battle by his brother Clarence, who upon this occasion deserted his father-in-law, victory declared itself in his favour. The earl, after performing prodigies of valour, lost his life in the engagement.

The same day on which this decisive battle was fought, Queen Margaret, and her son, a young prince of great hopes, now about eighteen, landed at Weymouth, supported by a small body of French troops. She was greatly discouraged at the unhappy tidings; but resuming her former spirit, she determined to defend to the utmost her fallen fortunes. For this purpose she advanced through the counties of Devon, Somerset, and Gloucester, towards the north; but at Tewkesbury she was overtaken, and a battle ensued, in which she was entirely defeated and taken prisoner, together with her son. The young prince, being brought before Edward, was asked by him how he dared to invade his dominions; he replied, with much intrepidity, that he came to claim his just inheritance. Edward, enraged at his answer, brutally struck him on the face with his gauntlet. This was a signal for further violence, and the Dukes of Clarence and Gloucester, with some other noblemen, hurrying him into the next apartment, there dispatched him with their daggers. Margaret was thrown into the Tower, and the meek Henry, as is generally reported, was murdered by the Duke of Gloucester. Thus all the hopes of the house of Lancaster seemed utterly extinguished. As to Margaret, after having sustained the cause of her husband with a masculine courage in twelve battles, and survived her friends, her fortune, and her children, she was ransomed for 50,000 crowns, and died a few years after in France.

CHAPTER II.

ECCLESIASTICAL AFFAIRS, &c

The reign of Henry IV. affords the first example of a capital execution for the crime of heresy. For a long period the clergy had been assailed with every opprobrious epithet by the followers of Wycliffe, which they had borne with exemplary charity. These deluded men now no longer confined themselves to abusive words, but proceeded to instigate the people not to pay their tithes; and endeavoured, by artful contrivances, to procure the confiscation of all ecclesiastical property. Henry, therefore, found it necessary to call a convocation, in which his commissioners exhorted the bishops to take measures for the suppression of the errors disseminated by the itinerant preachers; an act was accordingly passed for the suppression of the new sect, and the protection of the Church. The act recites, that if any person convicted shall refuse to abjure such doctrines, or relapse after having abjured, he shall be burnt on a high place before the people.

Almost immediately after passing this act, a petition was presented by one William Sawtree, begging to be allowed to dispute on the subject of religion before them. Sawtree had, two years before, been convicted of heresy, and deprived of his living; but, on his recantation, had been admitted a chaplain at St. Osyth's, in London. His request was granted, and he became a victim to his senseless enthusiasm. He was delivered to the sheriff, and burnt as a malefactor, in the presence of an immense multitude of the people.

This severity, however, had not the desired effect. Their doctrines spread the more widely, and their animosity was redoubled. At their head was Lord Cobham, generally known by the name of Sir John Oldcastle, who had distinguished himself by his valour and military talents, virtues which, at all times, gain greatly on the affections of the people. Emboldened by their numbers, they threatened that, if any opposition should be employed by the government to their doctrine, they would assemble 100,000 men in its defence. The author of this menace was found to be Oldcastle. He fled, but

was taken by a military force, and conveyed to the Tower, whence he found means to escape, determined on revenge. To effect this, he appointed a general rendezvous, intending to seize the king, and put their opponents to the sword: their design was discovered; they were dispersed, and the ringleaders executed. Sir John Oldcastle escaped, and for some time eluded the pursuit of his enemies; but he was at length taken. Being arraigned, and asked what he had to say, he declared that he did not acknowledge the jurisdiction of that court, whilst his lawful king, Richard II., was alive. He was instantly sentenced to be hanged as a traitor, and afterwards to be burnt as a heretic, which sentence was accordingly executed in St. Giles's Fields, having at the gallows prophesied that he would rise from the grave the third day, the non-accomplishment of which very much staggered the faith of his credulous followers.

Henry V., who had discarded all his former dissolute companions, and become an example of modesty, piety, and regularity, shewed no less zeal in inquiring into various abuses which his predecessors had fallen into; who, when they seized alien benefices, had often bestowed part of the revenues upon the laity. These he rectified to the best of his power, ordering the religious houses to be repaired, or transferring the vacancies to other communities.

CHAPTER III.

LAWS, GOVERNMENT, COMMERCE.

Although the constitution, government, and laws of England had not yet arrived at that excellence to which they have since attained, they were continually improved in the course of this period, and much exceeded those of any other state in Europe. Philip de Comines, after describing the disorders that reigned in the governments of France, Germany, and Italy, and the cruel oppressions under which the people of those countries groaned, concludes in this manner: "In my opinion, of all the states in the world that I know, England is the country where the commonwealth is best governed,

and the people least oppressed." This arose principally from the increasing importance and authority of the House of Commons, occasioned partly by the pecuniary wants of the kings, the defective title of Henry IV., and the civil wars, which obliged the adverse parties to court the affections of the people, and exert themselves to procure the election of their respective friends. The partiality, however, of the sheriffs, who being chosen by those in power often made undue returns, provoked the remonstrance of the Commons, and, as a remedy, two statutes were enacted. The first provided, that in the next county court held after the delivery of the writ, the election should be immediately commenced, and that the names of the chosen candidates should be certified by an indenture, under the seal of all those who had voted in their favour. By the second, a sheriff making a false return was fined £100. Freedom from arrest was a privilege long enjoyed by the members of the Commons equally with the Lords, and now most strictly enforced. Freedom of debate, a privilege still more important, which had been considerably impaired during the reign of Richard II. recovered its former stability. Under the protection of this privilege, the Commons introduced the practice of addressing the king by word of mouth, instead of committing their petitions to writing. They also firmly established, in the various applications of the king for supplies, the right to vote the money of the nation, to appropriate it to particular services, to inquire into the disposal of it, and all grievances tending to increase the burthens of the people.

During the reign of Henry V. the Commons obtained a confirmation of their claim, that no statute should be valid unless it were enacted with their assent; and to their often renewed complaint, that their petitions were so altered by omissions and additions, that, when published, the law was often quite contrary to its original intention, the king replied, that henceforth nothing should be enacted contrary to their petitions.

Under Henry VI. the Commons continued to grow in importance: several statutes were enacted for the entire security of their members, and for the regulation of elections. They, moreover, exercised the right of

impeaching those ministers who had forfeited the confidence of the nation.

During this period the number of judges in the courts at Westminster was not fixed, there being sometimes six, seven, or eight in the court of Common Pleas. Their salaries were very small. The Chief Justice had only £40 per year, and the others only £30, till Henry VI., by letters patent, granted to the former £160 and to the latter £100. But, besides his salary, every judge had a certain quantity of silk, linen, and furs, for his robes, out of the royal wardrobe. The annual salary of the Attorney General was only £10, about £150 of the present money. When a judge was admitted into his office, he took a solemn oath that he would not receive any fees, pension, gift, reward, or bribe of any man having a suit or plea before him, except meat and drink, which should be of no great value.

Some excellent laws for the regulation and encouragement of trade were made in the reign of Edward IV., who, though so much engaged in war, paid great attention to commerce. Foreign trade was not then conducted as it is at present. Merchants did not usually carry their goods to the ports where they were to be finally disposed of, but to certain emporia, called staple cities, in which they met with customers from the countries where their goods were wanted. This appears to have been in part caused by the imperfect state of navigation, which made long voyages tedious, as likewise by the number of pirates that infested the seas. Merchants, therefore, of distant countries divided the fatigue and danger, by meeting each other half-way. Bruges, in Flanders, was the emporium of Europe in those days; and so great was the resort to it from the Mediterranean and the Baltic, that 150 ships were seen to arrive at its harbour of Sluys in one day.

Henry V. was as victorious by sea as by land. In his reign the fleets of England rode triumphant on the narrow seas. At his first invasion of France, he had two large and beautiful ships, in imitation of the Venetian carracks, which, with those of Genoa, were often seen in the British harbours. The one was called the King's Chamber, and the other his Hall.

The new coins of this period were nobles and angels, worth 10s. and 14s. of our present money. They were much admired both at home and abroad for their purity and beauty.

CHAPTER IV.

ARTS, MANNERS, &c.

The style of architecture commonly called Gothic, was, at this period, carried to the highest perfection. Of this lofty and bold style of building, the chapels of King's College, Cambridge, that of St. George at Windsor, the Divinity School at Oxford, and the College Church at Edinburgh, still remain entire.

The changes introduced into the art of war, by the invention of gunpowder, were slow. The martial adventurers of those times were too much attached to the arms they had been accustomed to, and they could not at once find machines fit to manage an agent so violent in its effects as gunpowder was. Some of their cannon were enormously large, discharging balls of 500 pounds weight, and required fifty horses to draw them. The balls were chiefly made of stone.

About the end of the fourteenth century, playing cards were introduced into France by a painter of Paris, for the amusement of the unhappy prince, Charles VI., in his lucid intervals. They were gilded and illuminated with no little skill and labour, which greatly augmented their value, the price of a pack being no less than 18s. 8d., a very considerable sum in those days.

It was during this period that the art of printing was invented on the Continent, and introduced into this island. One Corsellis began to print at Oxford in 1468; but it was William Caxton, a mercer of London, who claimed the honour of first introducing into England the art of printing with fusile types in 1474.

Chivalry, one of the most remarkable peculiarities in the manners of the middle ages, began to decline in the fifteenth century. The country was too much engaged in real battles to attend to the representation of them.

The hospitality of all ranks, but particularly of the

great and opulent, was very remarkable. "Neville, Earl of Warwick," says Stowe, "was ever held in great favour by the commons of the land, on account of his hospitality, in all places wherever he went; and when he came to London, he kept such a house, that six oxen were eaten at a breakfast, and every tavern was full of his meat." The entertainments of the barons were kept with great state and ceremony, but not with equal neatness or delicacy. The lord sate in state in his great hall, at the head of a long clumsy oaken board, and his guests were seated on each side on long benches, according to their rank. The table was loaded with large pewter dishes filled with meat, venison, poultry, sea-fowls, wild-fowls, game, and fish. The side-boards were well furnished with ale and wine, which were given to the company in pewter or wooden cups, by the grooms, yeomen, and waiters, all ranged in order. They made generally four meals a day, viz. their breakfast about seven, dinner at ten, supper at four, and their liveries at eight or nine.

The English were remarkable at this period for the disgraceful and profane practice of swearing. When the Earls of Warwick and Stafford visited the Maid of Orleans in prison, to induce her to acknowledge her delusion, she said, "I know that you English are determined to put me to death, vainly imagining that then you will conquer all France; but I tell you that, although there were 100,000 of your swearing countrymen in France, they will never conquer it." It is mentioned as a praiseworthy singularity, that Henry VI. did not swear in conversation, but often reproved his officers of state for so odious a habit, now almost universally exploded from every polite company.

BOOK VII.

CHAPTER I.

MILITARY HISTORY.

THE HOUSE OF YORK.

Including a Space of 24 Years.

EDWARD IV., REIGNED 22 YEARS, 1 MONTH, 5 DAYS.

1461.—As peace was now restored to the nation, Edward convoked a parliament, which ratified, as usual, the acts of the conqueror, and recognized his legal authority. But the prince, who had been so active, firm, and intrepid in danger, was unable to resist the allurements of pleasure, the intoxication of success, or the gratification of revenge. Among his other cruelties, his conduct to his brother Clarence is the most atrocious. Though the duke had rendered him a signal service, by deserting Warwick just before the battle near Barnet, he could never regain his affection or confidence, and a trivial incident gave Edward an opportunity to wreak his vengeance upon him. The king, hunting one day in the park of Thomas Burdett, killed a white buck which was a great favourite with the owner. Burdett, vexed at the loss, in the heat of his passion, wished the horns of the deer in the body of the person who had advised the insult. As he was a dependent of the Duke of Clarence, this hasty expression was considered unpardonable by the vindictive Edward, and he caused the unfortunate complainant to be tried and executed. The duke, unable to contain himself, exclaimed publicly against the iniquity of the sentence. For this he was committed to the Tower, and being summoned before the House of Lords, where the king himself appeared against him as his accuser, he was condemned to die. He was then closely confined in the Tower, and soon after found drowned in a butt of malmsey; a manner of death of which it is said, he had himself made choice. (A. D. 1478.)

Whilst the king was thus indulging his cruelty and dissipation, he was somewhat roused by a prospect of foreign conquest. Having formed a league with the Duke of Burgundy, he crossed the seas, at the head of 10,000 men, to invade the French dominions. He did not, however, meet with the assistance he expected from the duke, and withdrew, after obliging the French king to pay him down 75,000 crowns, and agree to send him annually 50,000 more during their joint lives. Some time after, whilst preparing for another attack on the French monarchy, he was seized with a distemper, of which he expired, in the forty-second year of his age, leaving two sons: Edward, Prince of Wales, in his thirteenth year; and Richard, Duke of York, in his ninth. He had also five daughters.

EDWARD V., REIGNED 2 MONTHS, 12 DAYS.

1483.—Edward V., on his accession, received the oaths of the principal nobles, and his uncle the Duke of Gloucester was made protector of the kingdom. No sooner was he invested with this dignity by the council, than, under pretence of guarding the young king and his brother, he sent them both to the Tower. He had, hitherto, concealed the villainy of his character by the deepest dissimulation; but having now the power in his hands, he no longer hesitated to remove all obstruction between him and the throne. For this purpose he first secured to his interest the Duke of Buckingham, a man of talents and power, by bribes and promises of future favour. He then attempted to attach Lord Hastings to his party; but finding him determined in his fidelity to Edward's children, he resolved to cut him off. Having summoned a council in the Tower, he entered, with an angry countenance, and asked, what those deserved who had plotted against his life? Hastings immediately answered, that they merited the punishment of traitors. "These traitors," cried Richard, "are that sorceress my brother's wife, and Jane Shore, his mistress. See to what a condition I am reduced by their spells." Upon this he laid bare his arm, all shrivelled and decayed. The councillors, who knew that this infirmity had attended him from his youth, looked at

each other in silent amaze: but Hastings cried out, „If they have committed this crime, they deserve the severest punishment." "If!" cried the protector, "Dost thou answer me with ifs? I tell thee they have conspired my death, and thou, traitor, art accomplice in the crime." He then struck the table twice with his hand, and the room was instantly filled with armed men. "I arrest thee," continued he to Hastings, "for high treason;" and at the same moment the soldiers hurried him to the court-yard of the Tower, where he was beheaded on a log of wood; Gloucester crying out, "By St. Paul, he would not dine till he saw his head off."

Jane Shore, the late king's mistress, was the next victim. This unfortunate woman was an enemy too humble to excite his jealousy; but having accused her of witchcraft, of which all the world knew her to be innocent, he thought fit to make her an example for the faults of which she was really guilty. The charge of adultery was too notorious to be denied; she acknowledged her guilt, and was condemned to walk barefooted through the city, and do public penance at St. Paul's in a white sheet, with a wax taper in her hand. She lived about forty years after this sentence, and was reduced to the most extreme indigence; a standing memorial of the punishment and disgrace which usually attend the commission of such enormities.

The violence exercised against the nearest connections of the late king, prognosticated the severest fate to his defenceless children; as, after the murder of Hastings, the protector no longer concealed his intention of aspiring to the crown. He first endeavoured to prove the illegitimacy of Edward's children. He next ordered the Mayor of London, whom he had gained to his interests, to call an assembly of the citizens; but though the Duke of Buckingham, a man of great eloquence, harangued them on Richard's title, and talked much of his virtues, no mark of approbation followed. A few only of the meanest of the people, and the servants of the duke, raised a feeble cry of "God save King Richard." As this was interpreted by the mayor into the voice of the nation, they repaired immediately to Richard and offered him the crown, which with apparent reluctance he accepted.

RICHARD III., REIGNED 2 YEARS, 2 MONTHS.

1483.—Richard was no sooner seated on the throne than, sending for the governor of the Tower, he ordered him to put the two young princes to death. But that brave man, Sir Robert Brackenbury, nobly refused to imbrue his hands in innocent blood: a fit instrument was, however, soon found. Sir James Tyrrell readily undertook the office, and Brackenbury was ordered to resign the keys for one night. By that wretch and his associates, the young princes were suffocated as they lay asleep, and their bodies buried under a heap of stones at the foot of the stairs. But while Richard thus endeavoured to secure his usurped power, he found it menaced in a quarter whence he least expected opposition. The Duke of Buckingham, who had been so instrumental in placing him on the throne, was become disgusted at the refusal of some confiscated lands which he had solicited. He therefore cast his eyes towards Henry, the young Earl of Richmond, who was descended from John of Gaunt. A match was agreed upon between Richmond and the eldest daughter of Edward IV. The queen-dowager sent over to the earl a sum of money, promising to join him, on his landing, with all the friends and partisans of her family.

Matters being thus arranged, the Duke of Buckingham withdrew into Wales, to raise an army; but at that very time the Severn became so swoln, that it was impassable. The Welsh, affrighted at this unforeseen event, and in great want of provisions, separated immediately, notwithstanding all his solicitations. Buckingham, finding himself deserted, put on a disguise, and sought refuge with an old servant of his house, who basely betrayed him to Richard. He was taken to Salisbury, and instantly beheaded.

In the meantime, the Earl of Richmond had collected a small body of troops, with which he set sail from Harfleur, and landed at Milford Haven without opposition. The king, who was at Nottingham, hastened to meet him with 12,000 men, while Henry's army had not increased to half that number. The battle began at Bosworth, near Leicester Soon after the commencement of the attack,

Lord Stanley, who had posted himself at Atherston, appeared in the field, and joined the Earl of Richmond. This unexpected movement caused great consternation in Richard's army, and inspired a proportional courage in that of Henry's. The tyrant, sensible of his desperate situation, fought with unexampled fury to the last moment, till, borne down by numbers, he met a death too honourable for his multiplied crimes and horrid cruelties.

The crown which Richard wore during the battle was brought to Henry, and placed on his head by Lord Stanley, who immediately saluted him king, amidst the repeated acclamations of the whole army.

Thus ended the contentions of the Plantagenets, and with them the wars which had desolated England during thirty years.

THE UNION OF THE TWO FAMILIES IN THE HOUSE OF TUDOR.

HENRY VII., REIGNED 23 YEARS, 8 MONTHS.

1485.—Henry's title was immediately confirmed by the parliament, and his prudent marriage with the Princess Elizabeth, eldest daughter of Edward IV., united the claims of both families, and caused universal joy to the nation, which now looked forward to peace and security. But Henry, with all his prudence and policy, could not overcome his antipathy to the adherents of the House of York. The joy which the people evinced, on his union with the queen, arising from the prospect of a happy termination of the wars which had desolated the country, was interpreted, by his suspicious temper, into a predilection of the people for the House of York. This not only disturbed the public tranquillity during his reign, but was the cause of much uneasiness to his consort, and embittered all his domestic happiness.

He confined in the Tower Edward Plantagenet, Earl of Warwick, son of the late Duke of Clarence. This unhappy young prince had been formerly detained in a like confinement at Sheriff-Hutton, Yorkshire, by the jealousy of his uncle, Richard. A comparison was now drawn between Henry and that tyrant, and as the Tower was the place where the children of Edward had been murdered, a similar fate was feared for Warwick. While compassion

was thus excited for youth and innocence exposed to oppression, a report was spread that Warwick had made his escape. A general joy shewed itself on every countenance, and many seemed willing to join him. So favourable an opportunity was not neglected by the king's enemies. Richard Simon, a priest of Oxford, and a zealous partisan of the House of York, attempted to take advantage of the popular rumours, by holding up an impostor to the nation. For this purpose he cast his eyes upon Lambert Simnel, a baker's son. This youth, who was endowed with an understanding beyond his years, and an address above his condition, was instructed to assume the name and character of the Earl of Warwick. He soon appeared so perfect in many particulars, that the queen-dowager was supposed to be his chief instructress. As the impostare, however, could not bear too close an inspection, it was agreed to make the first attempt in Ireland, which was zealously attached to the House of York. No sooner was this intelligence conveyed to the king, than he ordered Warwick to be taken from the Tower, and led in procession through the streets of London. But this expedient proved effectual only in England, for Simnel was strongly supported in Ireland; and being joined by Lord Lovel and the Earl of Lincoln, together with a body of German troops, furnished by Margaret of Burgundy, sister to Edward IV., he landed at Foudrey, in Lancashire, and advanced towards Coventry. Henry, well-informed of all these movements, assembled his troops, under the command of the Duke of Bedford. A bloody battle was fought near Stoke, in Nottinghamshire, in which the Earl of Lincoln lost his life. Lord Lovel disappeared after the battle, and was never heard of afterwards. Simnel, and his tutor Simon, were taken prisoners; Simon was committed to close confinement, and Simnel, being too contemptible to be a cause of further apprehension, was made a scullion in the king's kitchen, and subsequently advanced to the rank of falconer.

The Duchess of Burgundy, not discouraged by the ill-success of Simnel's enterprise, and full of resentment for the depression of her family, propagated a report that her nephew, Richard Plantagenet, Duke of York, had escaped from the Tower, when his brother was murdered, and still

lay somewhere concealed. She then got one Perkin Warbeck to personate him. The resemblance he bore to Edward IV., and the sagacity of his genius, rendered him a proper subject for the purpose.

Ireland, which still retained its attachment to the House of York, was again chosen as the proper theatre for Perkin's appearance; he accordingly landed at Cork, and assuming the name of Richard Plantagenet, drew to him many partisans. The King of France, glad of any opportunity to depress his rival, sent for him, and received him with all the marks of regard due to a royal house. Thence he went to the court of the Duchess of Burgundy, who, after a pretended scrutiny into his claims, embraced him as her nephew, and on all occasions honoured him with the appellation of "The White Rose of England." The king, by means of his spies, soon discovered the whole plan of the confederacy, together with the pedigree of the pretended Duke of York, which he published for the satisfaction of the nation. Perkin, finding that the king's authority continued firmly fixed, and that his own pretensions were becoming obsolete, resolved to attempt something to revive the hopes of his party. He, accordingly, endeavoured to land in Kent: but was repulsed. Some time after he repaired to Scotland, where King James, believing the story of his birth, gave him in marriage his own relation, Catherine Gordon, daughter of the Earl of Huntley, eminent for her virtue and beauty. As there subsisted, at this time, a considerable degree of jealousy between the courts of England and Scotland, James determined to support the claims of Perkin; and, accordingly, entered England with a considerable force. Finding, however, that the pretensions of Perkin were but little credited, and that a formidable army was marching to oppose him, he withdrew into Scotland. Henry thought this a fit pretence to levy impositions on his own subjects. He summoned a parliament, which granted him a large subsidy; but he found it more difficult to collect it from his subjects, who were well acquainted with the great treasures he had amassed; and could, therefore, ill brook new impositions raised upon every slight occasion. The people of Cornwall, headed by one Michael Joseph, a farmer of Bod-

min, and Thomas Flammoc, a lawyer, armed themselves with what weapons they could procure, and marched towards London, to deliver a petition, as they said, to the king, for redress. When they reached Wells, they were joined by Lord Audley, and, emboldened by the countenance of so considerable a person, they marched to Eltham, near London. But not having met with any reinforcements on the road, they were very easily overcome by a body of forces sent against them under the command of Lord Oxford, and their leaders were executed. Perkin, after various unfortunate adventures, fell into the hands of the king, and was confined in the Tower ; whence endeavouring to escape, with the real Earl of Warwick, they were discovered and executed. Perkin was hanged and the earl beheaded.

In 1499, the king married his eldest son, Arthur, to Catherine of Spain. The young prince, however, died in the course of a few months, much regretted by the nation. Henry, desirous of continuing the alliance, and unwilling to restore Catherine's large dowry, caused his second son, Henry, to be contracted to her. Margaret, his eldest daughter, was soon after sent with a magnificent train to Scotland, where she was married to James IV.

In the latter part of the king's reign his economy degenerated into avarice, and he oppressed the people in a very arbitrary manner. He had two ministers, Empson and Dudley, perfectly qualified to second his avaricious designs. They were both lawyers, and usually committed to prison, by indictment, the unfortunate objects of their extortion seldom releasing them but on the payment of heavy fines. By degrees they omitted the very forms of law, and confiscated, in a summary way, the properties of the people to the royal treasury. The decline of Henry's health, however, made him enter seriously into himself, and he endeavoured to make atonement for his rapacity by distributing alms and founding religious houses. He died of the gout in his stomach, at his favourite palace of Richmond, in the 52nd year of his age.

1509.—HENRY VIII., REIGNED 37 YEARS, 9 MONTHS, 15 DAYS.

The accession of Henry VIII., in the 18th year of his age, gave universal joy to the people. The beauty

and vigour of his person, accompanied by dexterity in every manly exercise, added to a knowledge of literature far beyond his age, gave promising hopes of his becoming the idol of the people. As the contending titles of York and Lancaster were now, at last, fully united in his person, men justly expected, from a prince obnoxious to no party, that peace and impartiality of administration which had long been unknown in England. To increase the hopes of the nation, many of the informers who had been the instruments of extortion in his father's reign were thrown into prison; Empson and Dudley, who were the most obnoxious to the popular hatred, were sent to the Tower, and soon after executed. But the young king, naturally lavish and fond of magnificent sports, soon dissipated his father's treasures; and this led him to seek for a minister who would enable him to gratify his extravagant disposition. He was not long in finding one to comply with all his inclinations, and flatter him in every scheme to which his impetuous temper impelled him. This was Thomas Wolsey, Dean of Lincoln, and almoner to the king. He was the son of an obscure person at Ipswich, but having received a learned education, and being endowed with an excellent capacity, he was employed by Henry in some secret negotiations, which he despatched so much to the satisfaction of the king, that he rose high in his favour. Admitted into his parties of pleasure, he took the lead in every gaiety; nor were his years, which were about forty, nor his character as a clergyman, any restraint upon his conduct. He became daily more necessary to Henry, who advanced him to be a member of the council, and, shortly after, sole and absolute minister.

Encouraged by Wolsey, and impelled by his natural temper, Henry made the most expensive preparations, by sea and land, to invade France. Attended by an immense train of nobles, he set sail for Calais, whence he marched to lay siege to Teroüanne, on the frontier of Picardy, into which the French endeavoured to throw succours. As soon as he had received intelligence of the approach of the French cavalry, he sent some troops to oppose them; when, notwithstanding they consisted chiefly of gentlemen who had behaved with great gallantry, they precipitately fled at the sight of the English. They were

pursued, and many officers of distinction made prisoners, among whom was the famous Chevalier Bayard. From this hasty flight of the French, the action was called "the Battle of Spurs." After this advantage, the intimidation among the enemy was so great, that Henry, who was at the head of 50,000 men, might have made incursions to the gates of Paris. Never was the French monarchy in greater danger, or less in a condition to defend itself against the powerful armies which assailed it on every side. But Lewis was extricated from his present difficulties by the blunders of his enemies; and Henry, after taking Tournay, returned to England much elated with a success, which, in reality, no ways compensated for the ruinous expense it had occasioned.

During Henry's absence from his kingdom, the Scots, instigated by Lewis of France, had made an eruption into England. The Earl of Surrey immediately marched to oppose them, and meeting them in Flodden Field, gave them battle. (A. D. 1513.) The conflict proved most disastrous to the Scots; ten thousand of their troops were slain, among which number were many nobles, and the king himself, whose body was recognized, after the battle, by Lord Dacre, and conveyed by him to Berwick, whence it was sent to London, and interred with suitable honours. A peace was shortly after concluded with the King of France, who married Mary, sister of Henry. Henry, upon the death of Maximilian, became a candidate for the German empire; but soon resigned his pretensions to the two great rivals, Francis I. of France, and Charles of Austria, King of Spain, who was elected in 1519. The conduct of Henry, in the long and bloody wars between those two potentates, was chiefly directed by Wolsey's views upon the Popedom, which he hoped to gain by Charles's interest; but finding himself twice deceived, he revenged himself by persuading his master to declare for Francis, who had been taken prisoner at the battle of Pavia. Henry, however, continued to be the dupe of both parties, and to pay great part of their expenses, until, the treasures which his father had amassed being exhausted, he was obliged to impose heavy fines upon his subjects.

Henry had now been married nearly eighteen years to Catherine of Arragon, when an event happened, that in

its consequences proved most disastrous tc the kingdom. This was his unlawful passion for Anne Boleyn, a lady of great beauty, but of a very irregular and loose character. Finding, after various attempts, that he could not satisfy his inordinate desires without espousing her, he determined to divorce the queen. To effect this, he pretended to be very uneasy in his conscience concerning the legitimacy of his marriage with Catherine, and his scruples were encouraged by Wolsey, who took this method to revenge himself on the Emperor Charles, whose maternal aunt she was. Henry, therefore, applied to the court of Rome for the repeal of the bull of Pope Julius, by which he had been allowed to marry Catherine. The pope, unwilling to exasperate Henry, yet determined not to consent to so unjust an act, permitted the cause to be tried in England by a legatine court, where Cardinals Wolsey and Campeggio, both subjects of his majesty, were to sit as judges; his holiness, at the same time, consenting to give a bull of divorce conditionally, should the sentence be given in court. The queen, however, as was foreseen by the court of Rome, refused to acknowledge their jurisdiction, and appealed to the pope. Upon this the two cardinals received orders to put an end to the sessions in England, and adjourn them to the consistorial court of Rome.

Wolsey was now in as great a dilemma as his master. On the one hand, he wished to please the king; on the other, he feared to disoblige the pope, whose legate he was, and who, moreover, could punish him for his disobedience. He resolved, therefore, to remain neuter; but this temporizing scheme highly irritated the king, although he stifled his resentment until he could act with more fatal certainty. For this end, he sought out a man of equal abilities and greater boldness. Nor was it long before accident threw in his way Thomas Cranmer, a doctor of divinity. He had been fellow of Jesus' College, and had kept his preferment, till his marriage with an innkeeper's daughter was discovered, when he was obliged to part with it. Having thrown out some hints relative to the king's divorce, he was admitted chaplain into the family of Sir Thomas Boleyn, and by him introduced to the king, who immediately employed him abroad in forwarding the divorce.

In the meantime Wolsey, at the instigation of Anne

Boleyn and her friends, who mortally hated him, had been deprived of all his places and emoluments, and at last was arrested on a charge of high treason. Broken down by his disgraces, he was obliged to travel slowly, and at length, finding his strength rapidly decline, he reached the monastery at Leicester, where, as he entered the gate, he said to the abbot, "Father, I am come to lay my bones among you." He was immediately conveyed to bed, and on the second day, seeing the lieutenant of the Tower, who had come to conduct him, he said, "Master Kyngston, had I but served God as diligently as I have served my king, he would not have given me up in my grey hairs. But this is my just reward for all my pains and study, not regarding my service to God, but only my duty to the prince." He expired the next morning, in the 60th year of his age.

The death of William Wareham made room for Cranmer, who was immediately promoted to the see of Canterbury, notwithstanding he had, after the death of his first wife, married another privately, whilst he was in Germany. Soon after his elevation, the king, who had already got himself declared head of the English church, appointed Cranmer to call an assembly, where Cranmer sat as judge, and pronounced the sentence of divorce. Henry had caused the marriage ceremony to be privately performed between himself and Anne Boleyn, some months before; Cranmer now ratified it, and it was afterwards confirmed by Act of Parliament in 1534.

The king's passion, however, for Anne Boleyn was soon palled by satiety. He now became enamoured of Jane Seymour, who had for some time been maid of honour to the queen. Anne Boleyn was, therefore, to be disposed of. She was accordingly accused of adultery, tried, and beheaded. The very next day Henry married Jane Seymour; his cruel heart being no ways softened by the wretched fate of one who had so lately been the object of his warmest affection. He, moreover, ordered his parliament to pronounce a divorce between the time of her sentence and execution: thus endeavouring to illegitimize Elizabeth, whom he had by her; as he had formerly done by Mary, his only child by Queen Catharine. Jane Seymour died in childbed of

Edward, who afterwards succeeded to the throne; when Henry, to connect himself with the Lutheran princes of Germany, and by that means to mortify the Pope and the emperor, contracted a marriage with Ann of Cleves. His aversion from her, however, increased from the first day of their marriage; till at length he resolved to get rid of her, and his prime minister, Cromwell, who had been the chief contriver of the marriage. He had, moreover, become enamoured of Catherine Howard, niece to the Duke of Norfolk, and to gratify his new passion, he once more discarded his present queen, to make room for a new one. As for Cromwell, he was tried and condemned for heresy and high treason, and was beheaded, deeply regretting his past misconduct, and declaring, that though he had been often led astray, he died in the Catholic apostolic faith. Henry was now so captivated with his new queen that he ordered public thanks for the happy event. But his joy was of short duration: he soon received information of her incontinence, and she was tried and condemned by the same servile parliament, with an additional petition to the king, that the punishment of death should be inflicted, not only on the queen, but also on her grandmother, the Duchess-dowager of Norfolk, together with her father, mother, the Lady Rochford, and nine others. The petition the king was graciously pleased to grant, and the queen and Lady Rochford suffered death soon after.

To forward his plans against the see of Rome, and detach the Scots from their alliance with France, Henry proposed to James, his nephew, the King of Scotland, to meet him at York; but the queen and his friends, alarmed at the consequences which might result from such an interview, prevailed on James to decline it. Enraged at this neglect, Henry vowed revenge, and sent the Duke of Norfolk with an army to ravage his territories; but, on observing that James had a superior force, the duke withdrew, and the Scottish army refused to follow them. Shortly after, Maxwell, the Scots' general, was ordered to invade Cumberland: but James gave private orders that, upon the army entering England, the supreme command should devolve on his favourite, Oliver Sinclair, which so disgusted the troops, that they fled without striking a blow. This disgrace so affected James,

that he was seized with a fever which caused his death. He left a daughter, the celebrated Mary, Queen of Scots.

Upon the news of this success, Henry projected the union of Scotland with England, by the marriage of his son Edward to the heiress of that kingdom. But, in the meantime, jealous of the connection between Scotland and France, he entered into a league with the emperor. The campaign which followed was not productive of any affair of importance.

About a year after the death of his late queen, Henry once more changed his condition by marrying his sixth and last wife, Catherine Parr, widow of the late Lord Latimer. She had the good fortune to survive him, although she narrowly escaped, as she was suspected, by the king, of favouring the doctrines of Luther.

Henry's cruelty increased with his years, and he exercised it promiscuously on Protestant and Catholic: on the former for adhering to the new doctrine; on the latter, for acknowledging the pope's supremacy. He put to death the brave Earl of Surrey;' and his father, the Duke of Norfolk, must have suffered the same fate had not the king's death timely intervened. His health had long been in a declining state; but, though for several days all near him plainly saw his end approaching, he had become so violent, that no one durst declare it to him; till at last Sir Anthony Denny undertook the ungrateful task. The king received the intelligence with more composure than was expected, and gave orders that Cranmer should be sent for; but when he arrived the king was speechless. Cranmer asked him to give some sign of his belief in Jesus Christ: when the king gently shook his hand, and expired shortly after, in the fifty-sixth year of his age. Thus died the wretched Henry, without the consolations of that religion he had so greatly outraged. A few weeks before his death he made his will, by which he left his crown, first to Prince Edward, then to the Lady Mary, and lastly to the Lady Elizabeth.

EDWARD VI., REIGNED 6 YEARS, 5 MONTHS, 9 DAYS.

1547.—Edward VI. was only in the ninth year of his age when he succeeded to the throne. The late king had appointed sixteen executors of his will, to whom,

during the minority of his son, which he had fixed till the age of eighteen, he intrusted the care of the minor and the government of the realm. Edward Seymour, Earl of Hertford, the young king's maternal uncle, now created Duke of Somerset, and a great promoter of the Reformation, by his influence and that of his party was appointed Protector, and for some time governed the kingdom with uncontrolled authority; but his rapacity, tyranny, and cruel disposition soon brought on his downfall. He was arrested by the Duke of Norfolk, his mortal enemy, and, together with his wife, and some others of his party, thrown into prison. The heads of his accusation were, that he had endeavoured to excite a rebellion in London, to raise an insurrection in the North, to secure the Tower, and to attack the train bands on a muster day. The charges he firmly denied, but confessed that he had intended to murder Northumberland, Northampton, and Pembroke at a banquet. He was soon after tried, found guilty, and beheaded on Tower-hill. Northumberland, who had long aimed at the chief authority, having thus got rid of his rival, saw still more alluring prospects for his ambition. He represented to Edward, that Mary and Elizabeth had been declared illegitimate by the Parliament; that the Queen of Scots was excluded by the king's will, and that the succession, therefore, devolved on the Lady Jane Grey. The king, entirely governed by this designing minister, agreed to have the succession submitted to council, and as Northumberland had a complete control over its members, their concurrence was easily obtained.

The young king's health now visibly declined, and the artful minister, to strengthen his interest, procured for the Marquess of Dorset, father to Lady Jane, the title of Duke of Suffolk, and then proposed a marriage between his fourth son, Lord Guildford Dudley, and the lady Jane. Edward, languishing under the fatal symptoms of his disorder, consented to all the suggestions of Dudley, and a new entail of the crown was made under Edward's own hand in favour of the Lady Jane. The judges were then summoned, and Edward informed them that on account of the dangers to which the religion of the country would be exposed, by the succession of the Princess Mary, he had resolved to alter the succession. The judges repre-

sented that the succession had been enacted by an Act of Parliament, and could only be altered in the same manner. They, however, at last had the weakness to yield; the fear of being obliged, by the Princess Mary, to restore the goods of the church, and the threats and promises of Dudley prevailed, and they signed the deed. Among them was Cranmer, the Archbishop.

From the moment the Dudleys had been about the person of the young king, his health had been observed to decline, and now he was put under the hands of an ignorant woman, who very confidently undertook his cure. After the use of her medicines, all the bad symptoms increased in a violent degree, and prognosticated his approaching dissolution, which took place in the sixteenth year of his age, 1553.

MARY, REIGNED 5 YEARS, 4 MONTHS, 11 DAYS.

1553.—Mary was near London when she heard of the death of her brother, and of Dudley's attempts to set the crown on the head of his daughter-in-law. Aware of her danger, she retired to Norfolk, where she found a number of persons ready to support her claim. Many noblemen soon joining her party, she was proclaimed at Norwich. Northumberland lost no time; assembling a body of troops he marched towards Cambridge; but no sooner had he quitted London, than the people with one accord declared for Mary, and summoned the Duke of Suffolk to surrender the Tower, of which he had taken possession, and the Lady Jane to abdicate the royal dignity. The news of this rising of the people was no sooner conveyed to Northumberland's army, than the greater part deserted him; and in this desperate state of his affairs he was constrained to cry out like the rest, "Long live Queen Mary." The Queen proceeded immediately to London, which she entered amidst the acclamations of the people, and was peaceably settled upon the throne. Northumberland, in the meantime, attempted to quit the kingdom: but was prevented by the band of pensioner guards, who detained him, in order to justify their own conduct in bearing arms against their sovereign. Thus baffled on all sides, he was sent to prison, tried, and shortly after suffered the punishment due to his ambition. Sentence at the same time

was passed against Lady Jane Grey and her husband, but without any intention on the part of Mary of carrying it into execution. The duke, when brought to the scaffold, professed himself a Roman Catholic, expressed his contrition for having sacrificed his religion and conscience to his ambition, and declared to the multitude present, that they never would enjoy peace and tranquillity till they had returned to the religion of their forefathers.

The queen's ministers soon saw the necessity of strengthening their power by the re-establishment of the ancient religion, and for this purpose sought for a proper consort for their mistress. They at length fixed upon Philip of Spain, son to the celebrated Charles V., judging that a powerful alliance with the Catholic princes would put a stop to any effectual attempt in favour of the Reformation. The Reformers, on their side, were far from being idle. They formed secret cabals in different parts of the kingdom, and spread various alarms among the people to prepossess them against the match. They represented it as a deep design to bring the nation under the dominion of a foreign power; and it was observed, that those who had been lately pardoned for abbetting Lady Jane, were the most active in exciting the people. Their first plan was to await the moment of King Philip's landing for a signal of insurrection, but the violence of their zeal admitted of no delay. Sir Thomas Wyatt, and many of the Kentish gentlemen, flew to arms; and about the same time Sir Peter Carew appeared at the head of a party in Devonshire; whilst Sir James Croft, a person of great influence in Wales, was despatched to excite revolt in those parts. The Duke of Suffolk, father of Lady Jane, although he had lately been pardoned for his treasonable attempts to alter the succession, took the field with his two brothers and other persons of distinction. The rebels were, however, with the exception of Sir Thomas Wyatt, dispersed in a few days, by the vigilance of the lord lieutenant. Sir Thomas marched to Rochester, where a body of men commanded by the Duke of Norfolk, were sent to attack him; but a regiment going over to the rebels, the duke retired towards London. The rebels immediately proceeded towards the capital, but were stopped at London Bridge. They remained two days at Southwark; when

the lieutenant of the Tower threatening to fire the Borough about their ears, they withdrew to Kingston, and thence, crossing the bridge which they had previously repaired, they advanced to Brentford ; but upon the publication of a general amnesty, most of the rebels, with the exception of Sir Thomas Wyatt and four or five of the other principals, returned to their homes. Sir Thomas with the remainder, proceeded towards London, where he was met by some of the Queen's troops, and, after a slight skirmish surrendered himself and was executed, having some time before his death implicated the Princess Elizabeth in the conspiracy. In this rebellion about a hundred lost their lives ; the rest were all pardoned. The persons most pitied were Lady Jane and her husband, who had been for some time under sentence of death. After this second attempt, it was thought necessary to cut off entirely the hopes of the reforming party, and they were accordingly beheaded, as were also the Duke of Suffolk and Lord Thomas Grey. (A. D. 1554.)

As all was now quiet, Philip came over and was married to the queen at Winchester, Bishop Gardiner performing the ceremony. In the marriage contract particular anxiety was shewn by her ministry to preserve entire the liberty, privileges, and customs of the nation.

In the last year of the queen's reign a war broke out between France and Spain, which involved England in the quarrel. As Philip was called to the scene of action, he prevailed upon Mary to permit some choice regiments of English to accompany him, who behaved with great bravery, and greatly contributed to the victory of St. Quintin's. Informed of an attempt to be made by the French to surprise Calais, Philip sent timely notice to the queen and her ministry, offering at the same time to reinforce the garrison by a detachment of his own army. But as the measure was either refused or neglected, Calais, which had cost Edward III. eleven months to capture, was given up to the Duke of Guise, after six days' siege. Thus was Calais lost, after being in the possession of the English nearly 300 years. This loss, undoubtedly the effect of treachery, filled the whole nation with discontent, and the queen with the deepest anguish. She was heard to say, that, when dead, the name of Calais would be

found engraven on her heart. This complication of evils, a discontented people, an increasing heresy, a disdainful husband, and an unsuccessful war, made dreadful inroads on her constitution ; she became consumptive, and as she was improperly treated by her physicians, her disorder increased. She died of a slow fever, on the 17th of November, 1558, in the forty-third year of her age.

Though the memory of Mary has been loaded with calumny and abuse by the ignorant or prejudiced, she has not wanted even Protestant writers to do justice to her character. Collier says : "It may be affirmed, without contradiction or panegyric, that the Queen's private life was all along strict and unblemished. Religion was uppermost with her, and she valued her conscience above her crown." That she was not of a vindictive, implacable spirit, may be inferred from her pardoning most of the great men in Northumberland's rebellion. "A princess never to be sufficiently commended of all men for her pious demeanour, and her commiseration towards the poor," says Camden. Echard says : "She was a woman of a strict and severe life, who allowed herself few of those diversions belonging to courts ; was constant at her devotions," &c. ; and Fuller says, "she hated to equivocate in her own religion, and always was, what she was ; without dissembling her judgment or practice, for fear or flattery." In a word, all was done openly, and by the advice and direction of the legislative power, without any undue interference. She gave no ambiguous answers, when questioned about her religion before she ascended the throne ; never fomented nor encouraged rebellion; did not amuse the neighbouring princes with sham treaties of marriage ; never assisted rebels abroad to rise against their lawful sovereigns ; entertained no favourites at court, to the prejudice of her reputation ; did not keep the dignities of the church in her hands for her own convenience, nor invade the revenues of its clergy, by diminishing their sees, or exchanging their manors for others of inferior value. That she possessed great fortitude is evident, from the many attempts that were made to shake her constancy in her faith, both in her father's life and that of her brother. To her father, as far as her conscience permitted, she was ever dutiful and respectful ; to Edward she represented, that he had neither years,

experience, nor as yet authority, to alter the religion of his ancestors. To the bishops and clergy who were sent to her, she answered, that a year or two before they were of a different opinion as to religion, and she did not know what new lights they had received since, or by what authority they preached their innovations. In a word, with the exception of punishing some few on religious grounds, according to former statutes, who might have been convicted for conspiring against her crown, she was a princess every way worthy of the eminent dignity to which, after many trials and hardships, Providence was pleased to raise her.

ELIZABETH, REIGNED 44 YEARS, 4 MONTHS, 7 DAYS.

1558.—Upon the death of Mary, Elizabeth, who was at Hatfield, hastened immediately to London, where she was received with great demonstrations of joy. Her first care was to assemble a parliament, which shewed itself entirely devoted to her will, and unanimously sanctioned her title to the throne. But Elizabeth was not without her fears: and the first and principal person that excited them was Mary, Queen of Scots. At a very early age that princess, possessed of every accomplishment of person and mind, had been married to the Dauphin of France, who dying, left her a widow at the age of nineteen. Finding herself exposed to the persecution of the queen-dowager, who then began to take the lead in France, she returned home to Scotland, where she found the people strongly agitated by the fanatics of the reformed doctrine. To strengthen herself, and secure the right of succession in her family, she married Lord Darnley, who after her was the next in succession. On the 19th of June, 1566, she had a son, who was James VI., of Scotland, and subsequently succeeded to the English crown by the title of James I. He was baptized in the Catholic church; Charles of France, and Philibert, of Savoy, being his godfathers, and Elizabeth, his godmother. But the Scottish nobility, who encouraged the Reformation, were in the meantime secretly contriving her ruin, assisted by the machinations of the Earl of Murray. The first project was to cause a misunderstanding between Mary and her hus-

band, by insinuating that she was too familiar with David Rizzio, her secretary. Taking his opportunity, he proceeded with some of his party to the queen's apartment, where Rizzio then was, and dragging him into the antechamber, they despatched him with fifty-six wounds, while the unhappy princess continued her lamentations during the perpetration of their horrid crime. This was a prelude to the tragedy that followed. Her husband, Lord Darnley, was strangled in his bed, his body thrown out of the window, and the apartment set on fire. People were left to guess at the authors of this barbarous murder; those who were acquainted with the inclinations of the persons about the court, conceived it to be, as it really was, a contrivance of Murray, Morton, and their party, to bring the queen under suspicion, and get the young king and the reins of government into their own hands. The queen, left alone among her enemies, was easily persuaded to marry some person who might assist her against their violence. She made choice of the Earl of Buchan, a nobleman in great favour with the nation for his prowess and valour, though in reality one of the murderers of Darnley. As reports to that effect were circulated, she insisted he should first clear himself from that imputation by a legal trial, and, moreover, be discharged from the obligation of his former marriage. It was, therefore, contrived by his party to call him to the bar; and as Morton was his advocate, and Lenox his accuser dared not appear, he was fully acquitted, and immediately married the queen: a circumstance that served to increase the suspicion that she was privy to the murder of her former husband. The plan succeeding according to their wishes, Murray withdrew to France, and the confederates took up arms, giving Bothwell secret notice to take care of himself, in order to prevent the discovery of the plot, if once he were taken; and also to avail themselves of his flight, for the purpose of charging the queen with the murder of her husband. They immediately seized the queen, and imprisoned her in Lochlevin Castle. From this confinement, however, she made her escape, and in a few days was joined by more than 6,000 men. With these a battle was fought against the rebels, commanded by Murray, who had returned from France, and been

made regent. The victory declared for Murray, and the queen fled towards the coast, where she embarked, and landed at Workington, in Cumberland, hoping to obtain protection from Elizabeth. In this she was unfortunately disappointed. She was ordered to Tutbury Castle, in Staffordshire, and put under the custody of the Earl of Shrewsbury. Soon after, the Duke of Norfolk, a nobleman distinguished for his generosity, affability, and beneficence, fell a sacrifice to the jealousy of Elizabeth, and the intrigues of the Earl of Leicester, his mortal enemy. That crafty courtier had instigated him to make an offer of his hand to the Queen of Scots, and promised, at the same time, to manage the affair with Elizabeth, a condition which Mary affixed to her consent. Instead of performing his promise, he took particular care to keep Elizabeth ignorant of the business, till being informed of it by other hands, she was so provoked at the duke's proceedings, that he was sent to the Tower, and being again accused of renewing the treaty of marriage, and of other pretended misdemeanours, he was impeached and beheaded.

Mary was now more strictly confined than ever. The tyrannical manner in which she was treated inspired many with pity for her sufferings, and among others a Mr. Babington, with about fourteen of his youthful companions, entered into a combination to deliver her. The attempt failed, and Babington and his associates were executed. At their trials it appeared, that although the Queen of Scots had held some correspondence with Babington, it was only relative to her escape from prison. Her enemies, however, did not fail to allege treasonable attempts against Elizabeth, and the desire of Mary to liberate herself from an unjust imprisonment was construed into an encouragement of traitors. After various preparatory contrivances, she was at length brought to trial. At first she protested against the competency of her judges, but afterwards consented to a hearing of her cause. She demanded to be put in possession of such notes as she had taken preparative to her trial. Her demand was refused, as was also her request for a copy of her protest. Even her wish to have an advocate to plead her cause against so many learned lawyers who had undertaken to urge the accusations was rejected, and after

an adjournment of some days, sentence of death was pronounced against her. No sooner was this result made public, than severe reflections were thrown out by the people against the conduct of the commissioners, and the injustice of the sentence. Much art was, therefore, used by Elizabeth, to make it appear how reluctant she was to confirm the sentence: but the Commons, who were entirely under the control of her ministers, in their address insisted upon the execution of the sentence, as the only way to secure her crown and the cause of the Reformation.

The fatal time drew near. Elizabeth gave orders in writing to her secretary, Davison, to expedite the mandate for the execution, and then after some days sent him an order to defer it; but it was too late, it had already passed the great seal. By some this conduct was attributed to remorse; but Davison, in the apology he afterwards wrote, clearly proves that the queen willingly and without any reluctance gave the order, and at the same time jocosely bade him go and acquaint Walsingham, who lay sick, that she was afraid he would die of grief at the news. He, moreover, asserts that she knew full well that it was too late to stop the execution when she sent to him: that three days after she had given him the order, she expressly told him she had not altered her mind, but wished the thing had been done some other way, and that her chief concern seemed to be to save her honour. In fine, he declares that on the very day of the execution he spoke with the queen, who severely checked him because the thing was not done. No sooner was the sentence known abroad, than much interest was made to have it reversed. The King of France sent over an ambassador in behalf of Mary: but he was plainly told, there could be no security for Elizabeth while she lived. King James despatched Sir Robert Melville to petition for his mother's life: but even his request of a respite for eight days was denied, and Elizabeth replied, "not an hour." When the sentence was delivered to Mary, and she was told, that so long as she lived, the religion adopted in England could not be secure, she gave God thanks, and seemed exceedingly rejoiced. That this was really the cause of her death, she herself observed at the time of her execution. "They say," said she, "that I must die,

because I have plotted against the queen's life; yet, the Earl of Kent tells me, there is no other cause of my death, but that they are afraid of their religion, because of me."

The order for her execution being now made out, and delivered to the Earls of Shrewsbury, Derby, and Kent, they immediately repaired to Fortheringhay Castle, where Mary was confined, and ordered her to prepare for death the next morning. She received the news with a composed and undaunted demeanour, and desired that her confessor might be sent to her. This request was cruelly denied, and the Bishop and Dean of Peterborough were recommended to her. Upon her refusal to receive them, the Earl of Kent in a rage exclaimed, "Your life will be the death of our religion, and your death will be its life." The fatal moment arrived: she dressed herself in a rich habit of silk and velvet, the only one she had reserved for this solemn occasion. At eight o'clock the sheriff entered her room, and informed her that all was ready. "I am so likewise," she replied, and immediately, with a composed and cheerful countenance, a veil over her head, her beads at her girdle, and a crucifix in her hand, she left her chamber, and proceeded to the hall, in which a scaffold was erected. The Dean of Peterborough then began an exhortation: but she begged him to forbear, as she was firmly resolved to die in the Holy Catholic Faith. The room was crowded with spectators, who all beheld her with pity and admiration, while her beauty, though dimmed by age and affliction, gleamed through her sufferings, and was still remarkable at this fatal moment. When she began to disrobe herself, the executioners offered their help: but she put them back, saying she was not accustomed to be served by such grooms. While her women, with melting eyes, were performing that office, she affectionately kissed them, signing them with the cross, and with a pleasant countenance bade them forbear their womanish lamentations, for now she should rest from her sorrows. The two executioners then kneeling, asked her pardon; she said she forgave them, and all the authors of her death, as freely as she hoped for forgiveness from God, and once more made a solemn protestation of her innocence. Her eyes were then covered, and she laid her head on the block without fear or trepidation,

and recited the Psalm, "In thee, O Lord, have I put my trust." Then stretching forth her body, she repeated several times, "In manus tuos," &c., and at two strokes her head was severed from her body. (A. D. 1587.)

Elizabeth received the news of this disgraceful event with such apparent mixture of sorrow and indignation, that her countenance changed, her speech faltered, and she appeared to abandon herself to grief and melancholy. She severely rebuked her council, imprisoned Davison, and wrote letters to the King of Scotland, protesting that the event had taken place without her intention or concurrence.

Thus died Mary, Queen of Scots, who, as Camden says, "was a lady fixed and constant in her religion, of singular piety towards God, of invincible magnanimity of mind, wisdom above her sex, and of admirable beauty." She suffered in the forty-sixth year of her age, and nineteenth of her imprisonment.

To return to Elizabeth's transactions with foreign powers. Philip of Spain, who had long aimed at universal dominion, was filled with resentment against Elizabeth, for the encouragement and assistance she had secretly afforded his rebellious subjects in the Netherlands. He now determined to put his projected invasion of England in execution. Every part of his vast empire resounded with the noise of armaments. The fleet consisted of 130 vessels of a greater size than any hitherto seen in Europe, the Duke of Parma was to conduct the land forces, 20,000 of whom were on board the fleet, and 34,000 in the Netherlands, ready to embark. No doubt was entertained of their success, and it was ostentatiously called the Invincible Armada. Great was the consternation of all ranks of people in England on its approach to their shores, and it served the ministry as a fresh pretext for accusations against the Catholics. The penal statutes were strictly enforced; and upwards of forty priests were put to death, although it was clearly proved that not an English Catholic was on board the fleet, nor in the army of Philip, and that, everywhere throughout England, they were among the foremost to offer their services and lives in defence of their country.

Meanwhile the most vigorous preparations were made to repel the invaders, and an enthusiastic love of their

country spread through all ranks. Lord Howard of Effingham was appointed to command the fleet; Drake, Hawkins, and Forbisher, the most consummate seamen in Europe, served under him, while a small squadron of English and Flemish vessels lay off Dunkirk, to intercept the Duke of Parma. The Spanish Armada now advanced towards Plymouth; while Effingham, with the English fleet, stood out from port, eager to give them a warm reception. They began the attack at a distance, pouring in their broadsides with admirable dexterity. They did not attempt to engage them more closely, being greatly inferior to them in number of guns and weight of metal; nor could they board such lofty decks without great disadvantage. They, however, disabled and captured two Spanish galleons. As the Armada advanced up the Channel, the English still followed, infesting their rear; and their fleet continually increasing from different ports, they soon found themselves in a condition to attack the enemy more closely, and, accordingly, they fell upon them while they were taking shelter in the port of Calais. To increase their confusion, Lord Howard took eight of his small vessels, and filling them with combustibles, sent them as fire-ships into the midst of the enemy. The Spaniards, aware of the danger, took to flight in the greatest disorder; while the English, profiting by the panic, took and destroyed twelve of their ships. This was a fatal blow to Spain. As the remainder of their fleet had received great damage, they resolved to return to Spain, by sailing round the Orkneys. They accordingly proceeded northward, followed by the English fleet, as far as Flamborough Head, where they were overtaken by a storm, and terribly shattered: seventeen of their ships, with 5,000 men on board, were subsequently cast away on the coast of Ireland. Of the whole Armada, only fifty-three ships returned to Spain, in a miserable condition, serving by their accounts, to intimidate their countrymen from ever attempting again so dangerous an expedition. (A. D. 1588.)

From being invaded, the English, in their turn, attacked the Spaniards; numerous expeditions were undertaken by private adventurers. Of those who figured most in these retaliations upon Spain, was the young Earl of Essex, a nobleman of great courage, eloquence,

and address, but hasty and presumptuous. His influence over the queen's affections promoted his power in the state, and he conducted all things according to his discretion. Intoxicated by the favour of his sovereign, he so far forgot himself, in a dispute with Burleigh, the prime minister, about the choice of a governor for Ireland, as to turn his back upon the queen in a contemptuous manner, which so provoked Elizabeth, that she instantly gave him a box on the ear. Enraged at this treatment, he clapped his hand to his sword, and swore he would not bear such ungenerous usage even from her father, and then left the court. He was very soon, however, taken into favour again, and the death of his rival, Lord Burleigh, seemed to confirm his power more securely than ever.

In Ireland, the oppression of the government, and the attempts to introduce the Reformation, had set the whole country in a ferment. To subdue the insurrection was an employ that Essex thought worthy of his ambition, and his enemies were not backward in promoting a scheme which would remove him from court, where he obstructed all their prospects of preferment; but it ended in his ruin.

Instead of attacking the insurgents in their grand quarters in Ulster, he led his forces into the province of Munster, where he only exhausted his strength, and lost his opportunity against a people who submitted at his approach, but took up arms again when he retired. This issue of an enterprise, from which so much had been expected, did not fail to provoke the queen; and her resentment was still further increased, when she found that, without any permission asked or obtained, he had left his appointment and returned to England. He was ordered to continue a prisoner in his own house till the queen's pleasure should be known; but the impetuosity of his temper would not suffer him to await a slow redress of what he considered his wrongs, and relying on his popularity, he began to hope, from the assistance of the multitude, for that revenge upon his enemies which he supposed was denied him from the throne. Among other criminal projects, it was resolved that Sir Christopher Blount, one of his dependants, should, with a small detachment, possess himself of the

palace gates; that Sir John Davies should seize the hall, and Sir Charles Dacres the guard chamber, while Essex himself should rush from the Mews, with his partisans, into the queen's presence, and entreat her to remove his and her enemies, to assemble a new parliament, and to correct the defect of the present administration.

1601.—While Essex was deliberating on the manner in which he should proceed, he received a private note, by which he was warned to provide for his own safety; and a person, probably employed by his crafty enemies, came as a messenger from the citizens, with offers of assistance against all his adversaries. Essex fell immediately into the snare, and it was resolved to raise the citizens. For this purpose he issued out with about two hundred followers, crying out as he passed through the streets, "For the queen! for the queen! a plot is laid for my life!" But the citizens had received orders from the lord mayor to keep within their houses, so that he was not joined by a single person. Returning to Essex-house in despair, he began to make preparations for defending himself to the last extremity. His case was, however, too desperate for any remedy of valour; and after in vain demanding hostages and conditions from his besiegers, who had now surrounded his house, he surrendered at discretion, demanding only civil treatment and a fair and impartial hearing. He was immediately conveyed to the Tower, with Lord Southampton, one of his accomplices, and being found guilty, was condemned to death. It is said he strongly entertained hopes of pardon, from the irresolution which the queen discovered before she signed the warrant for his execution. She had formerly given him a ring, which she desired him to send her in any emergency. This ring, it is reported, was actually entrusted to the Countess of Nottingham, to be delivered to Elizabeth; but the countess, who was his concealed enemy, never presented it; while Elizabeth, fired at his supposed obstinacy, reluctantly consented to his execution. The queen had been visibly a prey to remorse since the execution of the unfortunate Mary; the death of Essex completed her despair. The Countess of Nottingham had revealed, upon her death-bed, the secret of the ring, which so astounded the queen, that she

burst into the most violent paroxysms of rage, refused all sustenance, and for ten days and nights lay upon the carpet, a prey to the most sullen melancholy; nor could her physicians prevail upon her to be put to bed, or make trial of any remedies. She soon after fell into a lethargic slumber, from which she never awoke. She expired in the seventieth year of her age.

CHAPTER II.

ECCLESIASTICAL AFFAIRS, &c.

During the reign of Henry VII. but few transactions are to be noted with regard to the ecclesiastical affairs of the realm. A constant correspondence was kept up with the see of Rome, and although controversies arose concerning the right of patronage, presentation to church dignities, exemption of the clergy from taxes, prosecutions in courts of civil judicature, the privileges of sanctuary, the power of excommunication, and other church censures in cases of a civil nature, yet all these censures and controversies were ever carried on within the pale of the church; there was no breach of communion, no new liturgies, no articles of religion drawn up in opposition to the belief of the universal church.

Such was the state of affairs when Henry VIII. came to the crown. He exceeded many of his predecessors in the respect paid to the holy see; and even after he had assumed the title of head of the church, he was so scrupulous about the pope's supremacy, that Cranmer was obliged, at his consecration, to take the oath of canonical obedience to the see of Rome.

THE SEPARATION OF THE ENGLISH CHURCH FROM THE SEE OF ROME, COMMONLY CALLED THE REFORMATION.

1535.—Great changes, both in church and state, have been effected without any fixed design in the beginning; but favoured only by incidental circumstances, and taken up by bold and enterprising men. This appears to have been the case with regard to what is called the Reformation in England. All that was done for it under Henry

VIII. was rather for private ends, than for any real view to alteration: for while Henry was quarrelling with the see of Rome on the subject of his divorce from Catherine, those who were inclined to favour Lutheranism, and other opinions contrary to the doctrine of the universal church, took advantage of the confusion which prevailed in the nation, to seduce many to their tenets. Under these favourable circumstances, the Reformers exerted themselves to circulate satirical writings, and books of evil tendency, in order to create in the people a dislike to the practices of the church, and a contempt of its ministers. The king also, unable to obtain from the pope a sentence of divorce, set aside the authority of the see of Rome, renounced the pope's supremacy by a decree of Parliament, insinuated his intention of dissolving the monasteries, and attached himself to the Lutheran princes of Germany.

These proceedings encouraged the partisans of the Reformation to carry on their designs in a bold and methodical manner. Cranmer and Cromwell, through whose hands all public matters passed, took care from time to time to publish such orders and injunctions as served their cause; one of which was, that all preachers should forbear mentioning the controversies of the times on both sides. This, they gave out, proceeded from a prudential motive to restrain intemperate and exasperated minds. They were, therefore, to be silent on the articles of purgatory, praying to saints, faith, the celibacy of the clergy, justification, miracles, &c. This was clearly to favour the Reformation, it not being usual to silence the professors of an established religion out of compliment to its aggressors. Cranmer, at the same time, craftily insinuated to the king, that several things were then practised not authorized by the Holy Scriptures, such as the vow of celibacy in the clergy. Both public and private motives induced Cranmer to make this a leading inquiry. He had himself taken a wife, contrary to the canons of the church, and it cost him some pains to conceal his union. Again, some of the religious who had been expelled the monasteries, having an opportunity of conversing with those of the other sex, gave great scandal by the breach of their vows. However, Gardener and Tunstall procured a bill to be brought into Parliament,

which passed both houses, and it was declared capita. to refuse to subscribe to it. The articles were, transubstantiation, communion under one kind, celibacy of the clergy, monastic vows, private masses, and auricular confessions. This act kept the Reformers under some restraint as to any direct attack against those doctrines of the church, though they did not cease to ridicule its practices by satires, and even public plays and farces. Cranmer, whose marriage was no longer a secret, was summoned, under this act, before the privy council; but, producing a ring given him by the king, all proceedings against him were stopped.

Thus did Henry, by his resentment against the see of Rome for thwarting his vicious inclinations, give encouragement to the Reformers, though that he never could persuade himself to believe in their doctrine is plain, even from his last will, which in substance runs thus: "We most humbly commit our soul to God, who, in the person of his Son, redeemed us with his most precious blood. We also instantly desire the prayers and intercession of the blessed Virgin and all the Saints. We ordain that there be a convenient altar at Windsor, for a daily mass, to be there perpetually said while the world shall endure." He moreover ordered a thousand marks to be distributed among the poor to pray for the remission of his sins; and established a perpetual fund for the support of thirteen poor knights of Windsor, under the obligation of praying for the repose of his soul.

Next to the divorce, the king's extravagance was a powerful cause of the separation. Unable to replenish his exhausted coffers, he had cast an eye of cupidity upon the riches of the monasteries, and at length he resolved to begin the long-talked-of reformation of the religious. When first the measure was debated in council, a large majority were for reducing the number where neglect of discipline seemed to require such a regulation, but undistinguished seizure was exclaimed against as a sacrilegious and scandalous attempt. It was, however, at last decreed that the king, by virtue of his assumed supremacy, might act as he pleased. A visitation of all the monasteries was therefore appointed; and many artifices were made use of to make it palatable to the nation. Lampoons, ridicule, charges of ignorance,

sloth, avarice, superstition, lasciviousness, and frauds, were the common table-talk. No room was allowed for remonstrance or defence; the power of the visitors was without appeal.

When the visit was over, and particulars laid before the servile Parliament, it was decreed that all monasteries, the annual rents of which were under £200, should no longer exist, while the commissioners themselves were authorized to make the estimates. The larger, however, soon shared the same fate, notwithstanding the great encomiums bestowed upon them by the commissioners in their visitation. The refractory abbots were either tempted by the promise of large pensions, or threatened for their disobedience. Some were deprived; and others, more complying, put in their places. In a word, by menaces or presents, by promises and persuasions, and by every artifice which was likely to shake the constancy or prevail on the passions of men, the abbots were at last brought to surrender, so that in about two years were demolished those monuments of British power and Norman glory, which, during more than 1,000 years, had attested the virtue and religion of our ancestors.

Every station in life, every order of men, nobility and gentry, rich and poor, old and young, clergy and laity, felt the innumerable calamities that ensued. In the monasteries and abbeys were to be found the best instructors of youth; each convent had one or more persons assigned for that purpose. To them we are indebted for most of our historians, and even the preservation of learning. Their superiors were the best of landlords; the rents were low, the fines easy; their hospitality knew no bounds; and as to their charities, it will be sufficient to observe, that while the monasteries remained, there were no provisions of parliament for the relief of the poor, and no assessment on the parishes. If then we compare the annual income of the monastery lands, valued at nearly £140,000, with the poor rates now paid, regard being had to the different value of money, it will appear what the nation lost by their dissolution.

On the death of Henry, Cranmer and the other Reformers took particular care to secure the young king to

their party. They procured a commission, by which certain bishops and divines were empowered to draw up a new liturgy. This was so artfully worded as not to touch directly upon any doctrinal points, so that many of the clergy conformed to it, and were thus unthinkingly drawn into the snare. This liturgy was completed in 1548, but not enjoined till the year following, when several penalties were enacted against those who refused compliance.

As death had prevented Henry's further sacrilegious robberies, the ministry were now determined to complete the work. They caused a decree to be passed, in virtue of which they seized upon the remaining pious foundations, together with chapels, chantries, guilds, shrines, images, plate, jewels, and other costly ornaments. Part of the spoil found its way into the exchequer; but a far greater share became the prey of private individuals. An order also came forth to burn and destroy all the public service books and missals; antiphoners, graduals, &c., were all promiscuously committed to the flames. In the midst of all this, King Edward died; and as the attempt of Northumberland to set Lady Jane Grey on the throne miscarried, the Princess Mary ascended it amidst the acclamations of the people.

Immediately after her coronation, a parliament was called, which proceeded to annul those acts that had passed in the late reign in favour of the Reformation. Cardinal Pole was sent for, and soon arrived with full power from the Pope to effect a reconciliation. On the 20th November, 1554, he appeared in parliament, and having delivered in his briefs, &c., relating to his commission, he began a moving discourse, in which he compared England to the prodigal son; who, having wasted his spiritual substance, was now returning to the centre of unity, the see of Rome. He then pronounced the absolution; both houses of parliament answering Amen. On the following Sunday he gave a public benediction in St. Paul's Cathedral, in presence of the Queen, King Philip, the Lord Mayor, and citizens. Bishop Gardiner, the Lord Chancellor, preached a sermon, in the course of which he affirmed, that King Henry, not long before he died, expressed a fervent wish to be reconciled to the church of Rome, but would have it

effected without reflecting on his honour and dignity. This ceremony was followed by a jubilee, proclaimed over the whole church, so that nothing seemed wanting to complete the general joy of the nation. There were, however, many whose interest led them to maintain the principles of the Reformation. The purchasers of the church and abbey lands feared they should soon be obliged to restore them; and many clergymen who had married were of the number of the ill-disposed. Their disaffection at last broke out into various acts of rebellion: even the Queen's life was menaced. One parson Rose inserted in the public prayers, that "God would either turn the queen's heart from idolatry, or shorten her days." A dog's head was shaved in contempt of the tonsure. A cat was hung up in Cheapside with a wafer in her paws, to ridicule the blessed sacrament; and the queen's preacher was shot at in the pulpit at St. Paul's Cross. To put a stop to proceedings, which not only menaced the church, but also the overthrow of the government, a council was summoned. The queen and Cardinal Pole were for lenient measures; but the majority, with Gardiner and Bonner at their head, determined that the laws formerly made against rebels and obstinate heretics should be enforced. It is to be lamented, that Mary, in this instance, did not mingle prudence with her zeal, by punishing the guilty for their treasons, rather than their heresy, and thus prevent the charge of religious persecution, so justly merited by Henry, Edward, and Elizabeth. It is said, that upon this account, upwards of 30,000 left their native country; many were imprisoned, and about thirteen suffered death, being burnt alive. Among these, the most noted were Cranmer, Latimer, Ridley, and Hooker. Cranmer, in hopes of saving his life, made a full recantation of his errors; but when he found that his death was determined on, he again avowed his principles, and, with a firmness in death which he had not shown during his life, he courageously held the hand with which he had signed the recantation in the fire, till it was consumed to ashes.

Mary dying after a reign of little more than five years, was succeeded by her sister Elizabeth, who abolished all the decrees made in favour of Catholics in the last

reign, and in the end completely established the Reformation. She had, during Mary's reign, conformed entirely to the church of Rome, and had so disguised her sentiments, as to make it appear that she acted sincerely. But upon her accession to the throne, many of those who were enemies to the old religion, and had concealed themselves under occasional conformity, seized the juncture to rouse her ambition, and augment her fears. They represented that the act of illegitimacy was still in force against her; that her claims by Henry's will were precarious; that there were other pretenders, whose claims were plausible, and who wanted not power to support them; and that the see of Rome would certainly maintain its decree in favour of Catherine's marriage. For these, and many other reasons, they declared, that there was no other way left to secure her title than by firmly establishing the Reformation.

Elizabeth did not, however, declare herself all at once; she artfully continued to balance the hopes of both parties till she had secured to herself one sufficiently strong. She began by removing the leading Catholics from all places that would give them any influence at the elections: and, as nearly one-half of the episcopal sees were vacant, many voices were wanting to support the interest of the true religion. Reports were also industriously spread, that the Queen of Scots intended to disturb her majesty's title, and that the church lands were to be taken out of the hands of the laity, and restored to their rightful owners. When all was thus prepared, a parliament was called, in which, after acknowledging the queen's title, they proceeded to restore the first fruits to the crown, alleging in excuse the necessities of the government. The bill of supremacy was next introduced and passed, with this qualification, that Elizabeth should be styled governess instead of head of the church.

In the mean time, Parker, Whitehead, and others, prepared a bill for revising and establishing the Common Prayer. "The most considerable alteration," says Echard, "was that the express declaration made against the corporal presence in the Eucharist, as set forth by Edward, was now omitted, that none might be drawn out of the church upon that account. The mat-

ter, therefore, was left undetermined, as a speculative point, in which the people were left at liberty." In this affair none of the bishops, deans, or heads of the universities, were consulted. It met with strong opposition, not only from the clergy, but from many temporal lords. Scot, Bishop of Chester, made a resolute speech, in which he challenged the world to produce an instance where the bishops were not consulted in an affair of this nature. Abbot Feckenham proved, that "these reformers floated in their opinions, quitting their first plan, and refining upon themselves, yet always pretending to publish nothing but the unerring word of God." The convocation which was then sitting, not only dissented from the act concerning the Common Prayer, but signed a declaration and profession of the Catholic Faith, which is left to posterity as a standing proof that the Reformation was entirely the contrivance of the laity, and even of them many noblemen were totally averse from the change. The bishops who had made a fruitless opposition, were now put to the test of the new oath of supremacy. It was refused by all except Kitchin of Llandaff, who is called by Camden "the calamity of his see." Upon their refusal, they were deprived of their dioceses, and thus made obnoxious to the penalty of the law, which condemned them, on their first refusal, to deprivation,—on the second, to forfeiture of goods and chattels, and imprisonment during the pleasure of the sovereign,—and on the third, to the punishment of high treason. This sufficiently incapacitated the friends of the old religion; but still a remedy was wanting to unite the Reformers among themselves. For this purpose a convocation met in January, 1563, in which were proposed and passed the famous thirty-nine articles. These were followed by penal and sanguinary laws, making it death to be ordained, or to be any ways instrumental in reconciling any one to the religion of their forefathers. All their attempts, however, at uniformity, were fruitless. They broke out into parties, and, by degrees, into separate congregations, which have continued to the present day: so difficult an undertaking is it to unite them that are separated from the centre of unity.

CHAPTER III.

CONSTITUTION, LAWS, &c.

A general peace was re-established after the accession of Henry VII., and the prospect of happier days seemed to open to the nation. Quite wearied with the wars of the two houses, the people longed for repose, and therefore felt no inclination to resist the tyranny of his son and successor, Henry VIII., but basely permitted all those barriers which had been raised by their ancestors for the defence of their liberty to give way to the encroachments of arbitrary power. The revenues of the crown at this time were very great. The treasures found in the coffers of Henry VII. were equal to £8,000,000, of our present money. All this wealth, together with the tenths and first fruits, which had formed the revenues of the religious houses, came into the possession of Henry VIII. But a curse, it seems, was entailed upon riches so unlawfully acquired. Henry soon dissipated the whole; died poor, and fortunately for the liberties of England, left his crown as dependant on the people for supplies in parliament, as any of his predecessors.

With regard to the courts at Westminster, during this monarch's reign, the laws were shamefully perverted, and the most shocking acts of oppression were committed. Many noble persons were found guilty of high treason by acts of attainder, without any trial. Many were burnt, or otherwise put to death, upon account of religion; and a still greater number were punished with fines and imprisonment. After this, no one can hesitate to pronounce Henry VIII. a tyrant, and his parliament the servile executioners of his impious and cruel mandates.

Not less arbitrary was Elizabeth; witness the inquisitorial tribunal of the High Commission, and the continuance of the Star Chamber. No fewer, according to Dr. Milner, than two hundred and four Catholics suffered death in her reign, not including many who died in prison. Fifteen of these were condemned for denying the queen's supremacy; one hundred and twenty-six for exercising the priestly office; and the remain-

der for aiding and assisting priests, or becoming reconciled to the Catholic faith. Among these victims, no priest was put to death for any plot, real or imaginary, except eleven, who suffered for the pretended conspiracy of Rheims; a plot which, as the above reverend author justly remarks, was so notorious a falsehood, that Camden himself, the admiring biographer of Elizabeth, acknowledges the sufferers to have been political victims.

In a word, so many terrors hung over the people, that no jury durst acquit any one whom the court was resolved to condemn; while the practice of not confronting the witnesses with the accused gave the crown lawyers all imaginable advantages over them.

CHAPTER IV.

LITERATURE AND ARTS.

During this period, philology, or the accurate knowledge of languages, particularly of the Latin and Greek classics, was cultivated with much care and success. To speak and write pure classical Latin was considered as a valuable and polite accomplishment, to which persons of high rank, and of both sexes, aspired. In order to assist youth in the acquisition of this accomplishment, the greatest scholars of the age, Erasmus, Linacre, and others, did not disdain to spend their time in writing rudiments, grammars, vocabularies, colloquies, &c. Henry VIII. wrote an introduction to grammar; and Cardinal Wolsey composed a system of instruction for the school which he founded at Ipswich, his native town. He had himself been a schoolmaster, and was well qualified for giving these instructions. The celebrated Erasmus of Rotterdam, that most zealous and successful restorer of learning, came into England in 1497, and went to Oxford, with a design to teach the Greek language, but met with little encouragement. Patronised, however, by some few learned men, he continued to teach for a considerable time, and made several proficients in that language, who afterwards communicated their knowledge to others.

Erasmus bestows high encomiums on Cardinal Wolsey, as a patron of letters and learned men. He procured the most able professors by generous appointments; and, in furnishing libraries, he contended with Ptolemy himself. When he visited Oxford, in 1518, he founded seven lectures, and expressed his intention of doing much greater things for the University, which he in part executed, but was prevented by his fall from completing.

From the accession of the Tudors, and after the extinction of those factions which distracted England, a period of comparative tranquillity commenced. The country, in consequence, continued in a state of progressive improvement. Agriculture, and gardening in particular, were prosecuted with such success, that to this age is ascribed the introduction of various fruits and vegetables into England. Apricots, melons, and currants, were brought, for the first time, from Zante; and in the beginning of the reign of Henry VIII., carrots, turnips, and other edible roots, were imported from Holland and Flanders. To the passion of the age, and the predilection of the monarch, may be attributed the attention bestowed on a breed of horses, of sufficient strength to support the weight of the complicated panoply with which the knight and his courser were invested. Statutes of a singular nature were enacted, allotting for deer parks a certain proportion of breeding mares, and enjoining the prelates and nobles, as well as those persons whose "wives wore velvet bonnets," to have horses of a certain size for their saddle.

The rude simplicity of the Saxon architecture now gave way to the magnificence of the ornamental Gothic. The superb chapel of Henry VII., erected in Westminster, exhausted every ornament that taste could dictate or piety accumulate, and exhibits a splendid specimen of Gothic architecture in its latest period. Grecian architecture was then introduced: but its orders, till a purer taste prevailed, being intermixed with the Gothic, produced a discordant and barbarous assemblage.

After the invention of cannon, the utility of castles ceased; the king and nobility combined better accommodations with superior elegance. Hampton Court is a standing monument of Wolsey's taste. The man-

sions of gentlemen, however, were still mean, and the huts of the peasantry poor and wretched. The former were generally thatched buildings, composed of timber; or, where wood was scarce, of large posts inserted in the earth, filled up in the intervals with rubbish, plastered within, and covered on the outside with clay. The latter were slight frames, prepared in the forests at a small expense, and, when erected, covered with mud.

Painting met with considerable encouragement under Mary, and was enlivened by the presence of Antonio Mora, a native of Utrecht, who was sent over to London to paint the portrait of the intended bride of Philip. For this work he had £100, a gold chain, knighthood, and a pension of £100 per quarter, as painter to their majesties. Elizabeth encouraged painting, because she was never tired of seeing portraits of herself. A pale Roman nose, a head of hair loaded with about a bushel of pearls, and decked with diamonds, a large ruff, a still larger farthingale, are the features by which we recognize Elizabeth.

Poetry burst forth at this period with considerable splendour; and Spencer, Jonson, and Shakspeare, particularly the latter, have been justly celebrated in every succeeding age.

During the latter part of this period, a knowledge of music appears to have been an indispensable accomplishment in domestic life. "Being at a banquet," says Morley, "after supper was ended, and music books produced, the mistress of the house, according to custom, presented me with a part, earnestly entreating me to sing. After many excuses, I protested I could not: when every one began to wonder, and some whispered to others, inquiring how I had been brought up."

CHAPTER V.

COMMERCE, &c.

THE accession of Henry VII. was an event favourable to commerce, as it put an end to a long and ruinous civil war. But, if we may judge by most of the laws enacted during his reign, trade and industry were rather injured than promoted. Severe laws were made

against taking interest for money, which was called usury. Even the profits of exchange were prohibited, as favouring usury. To the praise of this king, it must, however, be mentioned that, in order to promote commerce, he lent money himself to merchants without interest, when he knew that their means were not sufficient for the enterprises they had in view.

It was prohibited to export horses, as if exportation did not encourage the breed, and make them more plentiful. In order to promote archery, no bows were to be sold at a higher price than 6s. 4d. of our present money. Prices were also fixed to woollen cloth, and the wages of labourers were regulated by law. These matters, it is evident, should be left free, as in the common course of mercantile transactions interference has ever proved hurtful.

In 1492, Christopher Columbus, a Genoese, set out from Spain on his memorable voyage for the discovery of the western world; and, a few years after, Gama, a Portuguese, passed the Cape of Good Hope, and opened a new passage to the East Indies. These great events were attended with important consequences to all the nations of Europe, even to those not immediately concerned in naval enterprises. By the enlargement of commerce and navigation, industry and the arts every where increased. It was by accident only that Henry VII. had not a principal share in those great naval discoveries. Columbus, after meeting with many repulses from the courts of Portugal and Spain, sent his brother to London, in order to crave the protection of Henry for the execution of his designs. The king invited him over to England; but his brother being taken by pirates, was detained in his voyage, and Columbus meanwhile having obtained the countenance of Isabella of Spain, was supplied with a small fleet, and happily accomplished his object. Henry, not discouraged by this disappointment, fitted out Sebastin Cabot, a Venetian, then settled at Bristol, and sent him westward in search of new countries. Cabot, after discovering the continent of America, returned to England without making any conquest or settlement.

During the reign of Henry VIII. the foreign commerce of England was chiefly confined to the Netherlands. The inhabitants of the Low Countries bought

the English commodities, and distributed them into the other ports of Europe.

Foreign artificers, in general, much surpassed the English, at this period, in dexterity, industry, and frugality: hence the violent animosity which the latter expressed against the former, who were settled in England. So great was the number of foreign artificers in the city, that 15,000 Flemings were obliged to leave it by an order of council, when Henry VIII. became jealous of their dispositions towards Queen Catharine. The king, in an edict of the Star Chamber, declared that the foreigners starved the natives, and obliged them, from idleness, to have recourse to theft, murder, and other enormities, which, in this reign, had increased to an alarming degree. No fewer than 2,000 persons were annually executed for these crimes. The true cause of these disorders was, however, to be found in the dissolution of the monasteries and abbeys, where so great a number of the poor were supported, and encouraged to work on their lands. These, when thus suddenly let loose, without any provision for their employ or support, became the pest of society, and the disgrace of their country.

The silver coins of Henry VII. were shillings or festoons, groats, pennies, and farthings. The gold coins were sovereigns, reals, nobles, all of standard purity. Henry VIII., after squandering his father's treasures, and those of the church and monasteries, issued coins which had only four ounces of silver, and, in consequence, eight ounces of alloy, to the pound. This shameful debasement of the current coin was one of the pernicious, dishonourable, and imprudent measures of his infamous reign, producing innumerable inconveniences in business, and making it a work of great difficulty to restore it to its standard purity.

In the reign of Edward VI. crown and half-crown pieces were for the first time coined, as also the sixpenny piece. During the two first years of Elizabeth, she coined so much money that she found herself able to reduce the base coin to its real value. This was thought of such consequence, that her parliament congratulated her upon it, and the event makes a part of the inscription on her tomb at Westminster. Her private

interest, however, and the rewards she conferred on her favourites, betrayed her into the measure of granting monopolies, and of creating exclusive companies, which were fatal to the interests of trade in general.

After the death of John Basildes, Czar of Muscovy, his son Theodore revoked the patent which the English enjoyed for a monopoly of the Russian trade. When the queen remonstrated against this innovation, he told her ministers that trade, which by the law of nations ought to be in common, should not be converted into a monopoly for the gain of a few. Theodore, however, continued some privileges to the English, on the score of their having discovered the communication between Europe and his country. In 1600, the English East-India Company received its first formation; that trade being till then in the hands of the Portuguese, in consequence of their having first discovered the Cape of Good Hope.

For several years after the commencement of this period, the state of the English manufactories was low, as foreign wares of all kinds had the preference; but the persecutions in France and the Netherlands having driven a great number of foreigners into England, commerce and manufactures were much improved. It was then that Sir Thomas Gresham built, at his own charge, the magnificent fabric of the Exchange, which the queen visited, and called the Royal Exchange. The navy at the decease of the queen consisted of forty-two vessels: very contemptible force, if compared with what it has now attained to.

CHAPTER VI.

MANNERS, &c.

At this period, but few of the comforts and conveniences of modern life were known. Queen Margaret, in her marriage with James IV. of Scotland, made her public entry into Edinburgh, riding on a pillion behind the king. The halls and chambers of the wealthy were surrounded with hangings of arras, and furnished with a cupboard, long tables, forms, a chair, and a few joint-stools. Their beds were apparently comfortable, and

often elegant; but people of inferior condition slept on a mat, or a straw pallet, under a rug, with a log of wood for a pillow. The large and fantastical head-dresses of the ladies of the former age were now superseded by coifs and velvet bonnets. Among gentlemen, long hair was fashionable throughout Europe, till the emperor Charles devoted his locks for his health; and in England, Henry, a tyrant even in taste, gave efficacy to the fashion by a peremptory order for his attendants and courtiers to poll their heads. The same spirit induced him by sumptuary laws to regulate the extravagant dress of his subjects; cloth of gold or tissue was reserved for dukes and marquesses, and that of a purple colour for the royal family; silks and velvets were restricted to commoners of wealth and distinction, and embroidery was forbidden to all beneath the degree of earl. Cuffs for the sleeves, and ruffs for the neck, were the invention of this period; pockets, a convenience to which the ancients had not attained, are, perhaps, among the latest real improvements of dress. Instead of pockets, a loose pouch seems to have been suspended from the girdle. Their cookery was distinguished by the profusion of hot spices with which every dish was seasoned. At entertainments, the rank of the guests was discriminated by their situation above or below the salt-cellar, which was placed invariably in the middle of the table. The chief servants always attended above the salt-cellar, beneath which the table was crowded with poor dependants, whom the guests despised, and the servants neglected.

In the time of Queen Elizabeth, costly apparel had so much increased, that she thought proper to restrain it by proclamation, though her example was very little conformable to her edicts. Although she was by no means beautiful, no woman appears to have been more vain of her person, nor ever went to a greater extravagance in apparel. She appeared almost every day in a different habit, and tried all the several modes she thought would suit her figure. She was also so fond of her clothes, that she never would part with any of them; and at her death she had in her wardrobe all the different habits she had ever worn, to the number of 3,000. Silk stockings were introduced at this time. Mrs. Mon-

tague, her silk woman, having presented her with a pair of black silk stockings, she never afterwards wore cloth hose. Ruffs made of lawn or cambric, and stiffened with yellow starch, were worn by both ladies and gentlemen. The beard now throve abundantly. The portraits of this period have them of a most uncommon size. Among the customs of this age was that of smoking tobacco. This herb reached England in 1586, imported by the remains of Sir Walter Raleigh's unfortunate settlers from Virginia; the knight himself was one of its first admirers, but for some time kept his attachment to it a secret, till the foible was discovered by a laughable incident. He was enjoying his pipe in solitude, forgetful that he had ordered his servant to attend him with a jug of ale. The faithful domestic suddenly entering the study, and finding, as he thought, his master's brains on fire, and evaporating in smoke and flames through his nostrils, did his utmost to extinguish the conflagration by emptying the goblet on his master's head, and then rushing out of the room, alarmed the family with an account of the frightful scene he had witnessed. Sir Walter then made no secret of taking tobacco; and, some years after, smoked two pipes publicly on the scaffold.

In the course of this age theatrical representations furnished amusement to all ranks. The earliest patent for acting them is dated 1574; but in the beginning of the next century, fifteen licensed theatres were open to the inhabitants of London. The price of admittance to the best places was, even as late as 1614, only one shilling, and at the inferior theatres one penny or twopence would gain admittance. The plays generally began about one in the afternoon, and lasted about two hours.

BOOK VIII.

THE UNION OF THE TWO KINGDOMS, IN THE HOUSE OF STUART.

CHAPTER I.

MILITARY HISTORY, &c.

1603.—JAMES I., REIGNED 22 YEARS, 3 DAYS.

In the person of James was united every claim, either of descent, bequest, or parliamentary sanction; he therefore ascended the throne with the universal approbation of all ranks of the people. In the very beginning of his reign, however, a conspiracy, real or pretended, was discovered, which appears, according to the indictment, to have had for its object the murder of the king, and the subversion of the Protestant religion. Our historians give but a very imperfect account of the affair, the whole appearing full of inconsistencies, and only a trick to terrify the party that seemed jealous of the Scottish interest, and to bring an odium upon the Catholics. This plot is said to have been commenced by Lord Cobham, Lord Grey, and Sir Walter Raleigh. Cobham and Grey were pardoned when they had their heads upon the block. Raleigh was reprieved, but remained in confinement; and at last suffered for this offence, which was never proved.

1605.—No sooner had the alarm of the nation subsided, than a plot still more atrocious was, by the activity or invention of the government, brought to light: it is called the "Gunpowder Plot." It appears to have had its origin in the disappointed hopes of some fanatical wretches, and the diabolical policy of Cecil, who secretly urged them on, in order to cast a fresh odium upon the whole body of the Catholics, and prevent the king from manifesting the favourable dispositions he evidently at that time entertained for them. The history of this horrid affair is as follows. One Catesby having conceived the detestable design of blowing up

the king and members of Parliament when assembled together, communicated his project to Percy, a relative of the Duke of Northumberland, to Guy Fawkes, and a few others. For this purpose they hired a house about two months before the meeting of Parliament, adjoining that in which the members assembled. They afterwards took a cellar, directly under the Parliament-house, which Percy gave out was for the winter's fuel. Into this were introduced about forty barrels of gunpowder; and the whole being covered with coals, the doors were thrown open as if it contained nothing dangerous. Thus far the contrivance had been kept secret among the persons concerned; but, about ten days before the Parliament was to meet, a letter from an unknown hand was delivered to Lord Monteagle, admonishing him to be absent from Parliament on the day of their first meeting, for that "a sudden judgment would fall upon the nation by an invisible hand." The ambiguity of the expression surprised and puzzled that nobleman: he therefore immediately disclosed the whole to Cecil. This open proceeding of Lord Monteagle seems to have disconcerted Cecil's plan of sending notices to the other Catholic peers who sat in Parliament. The design of sending these letters appears to have been, to deter those noblemen from appearing in Parliament on that day, and thus afford plausible grounds for charging them with a knowledge of the plot. To strengthen this conjecture, two Catholic peers, Stourton and Mordaunt, were actually fined, the former in £4,000, and the latter in £10,000, because their absence caused a suspicion of their being privy to the conspiracy. The letter was laid before the king in council, who, by the artful guidance of Cecil, conjectured, after some consideration, that the suddenness of the plot was to be effected with gunpowder, and by the nation was to be understood the Parliament-house: it was, therefore, determined to search all the vaults below the house of Parliament. Notwithstanding this, Cecil allowed three days to elapse, before the search was made, or even gave any orders concerning it. When the place was inspected, the whole contrivance was discovered. A man was seized, who proved to be Guy Fawkes: he had just disposed every part of the train for its taking effect

the next morning, and the matches and other combustible matters were found in his pocket. When taken before the council, he displayed great intrepidity, mixed with disdain and scorn, refusing to discover his associates, and shewing no concern but for the failure of his enterprise: but confinement for two or three days in the Tower, and the sight of the rack, overcame his obstinacy, and he made a full disclosure of the plot.

Catesby, Percy, and the rest of the conspirators who were in London, hearing that Fawkes was arrested, fled to Warwickshire; the remainder of the party were already up in arms. The whole amount, however, of the rebels, only consisting of about eighty, were totally unable to oppose the force sent against them; and, after a desperate resistance, in which Catesby, Percy, and two others lost their lives, the remainder were taken, tried, and condemned. Several of them suffered death, while others experienced the king's mercy. Two missionaries, Father Garnet and Father Oldcorn, both Jesuits, were executed upon this occasion, the former for not revealing what he knew in confession concerning the plot, though he had done every thing to dissuade them from it; the latter for concealing his friend Garnet. Thus ended this mysterious and diabolical attempt, in which it is hard to determine how far the politicians of the court were engaged. This much, at least, may be said, that they obtained their ends against the Catholics, who upon this account were violently persecuted, and have been in a body charged with the fact, although the king himself in Parliament, and in the proclamation issued for apprehending the traitors, declares it "only a contrivance of eight or nine desperadoes. Neither does his majesty charge the plot upon the whole body of the English Papists."

The penetration of the king, in the discovery of this conspiracy, raised his popularity very considerably; but his attachment to favourites soon changed the sentiments of the nation in his regard. The first of these favourites was Robert Carr, whose natural accomplishments consisted only in a pleasing countenance, and his abilities in a graceful demeanour. He was knighted, created Viscount Rochester, honoured with the order of the Garter, made a privy councillor, and finally created

Earl of Somerset. Some time after, however, being convicted of poisoning Sir Thomas Overbury, in the Tower, he was disgraced, and spent the remainder of his life in contempt, under the upbraidings of a guilty conscience. His successor in the royal favour was George Villiars; he soon attained the highest honours in the king's power to bestow, being made successively Viscount, Earl, Marquis, and Duke of Buckingham, Knight of the Garter, Master of the Horse, Chief Justice in Eyre, Warden of the Cinque Ports, Master of the King's-Bench office, Steward of Westminster, Constable of Windsor, and Lord High Admiral of England.

The discontents which these prodigal favours excited were not a little heightened by one of those acts of severity which cast a stain upon this king's reign. Sir Walter Raleigh had been confined in the Tower from the beginning of James's accession, and, during his imprisonment, had written several valuable works. His long sufferings and his learning had now excited the sympathy of the people; it was, probably, to procure his freedom, that he spread a report of his having discovered gold mines in Guiana, which would afford immense treasures to the nation. The king, either believing his project, or wishing to increase still further his disgrace, granted him a commission to try his fortune in quest of this golden scheme, but still reserved his former sentence as a check upon his future conduct. Raleigh had soon completed his preparations, and arriving off the river Oroonoka, he sent a part of his fleet, under the command of his son, up the stream: but, instead of a country abounding with gold, they found the Spaniards had been informed of their coming, and were prepared to repel them. Young Raleigh, to encourage his men, pointing to the town, cried out, "that was the true mine;" but in the act of speaking, he received a shot and instantly fell. The English carried the town, but, to their disappointment, found nothing in it of any value.

All the hopes of Raleigh now vanished, and the reproaches of his companions augmented his deplorable situation. On his return he was delivered up to the king, and strictly examined in council. The Spanish ambassador made bitter complaints against the expedi

tion; and the king declaring he had express orders not to molest the Spaniards, signed the warrant for his execution, not for the present offence, but for his former conspiracy. At his death, he shewed the same fortitude that he had testified throughout his life, and observed, as he felt the edge of the axe, that it was a sharp but sure remedy for all evils. (A. D. 1618.) But the reason of James's subserviency to the demands of the court of Spain soon appeared: Gondemar, the Spanish ambassador, had made an offer of the second daughter of Spain to Prince Charles, with hopes of an immense fortune. This was an affair, however, not likely to be soon negotiated; and when five years had elapsed without any conclusion, the Duke of Buckingham, in the true spirit of romance, proposed to the prince to travel in disguise to Spain, and visit the princess in person. Nothing could better please the young prince; having obtained the king's consent, they set out, Charles as knight errant, and Villiars as his esquire. Passing through Paris, Charles became enamoured of Henrietta, daughter of Henry IV. He, however, proceeded to Spain, where every respect and attention was paid to him: but Buckingham, by his insolent conduct, having disgusted the whole nation, determined to break off the match, which he found no difficulty in accomplishing, and shortly after Charles was married to the Princess of France. These proceedings, however, did not, as may easily be imagined, please the people. The House of Commons was become quite unmanageable, and the prodigality of James to his favourites had so increased his wants, that he was contented to sell his prerogatives one after another to procure supplies. In proportion as they perceived his necessities, they found new grievances, and every grant of money was sure to be joined to a petition of redress.

These troubles at home were attended by still greater in Germany. The king's eldest daughter had been married to the Elector Palatine, and this prince revolting against the Emperor Frederic, was defeated, and obliged to flee into Holland. His affinity to the English crown, and particularly his religion, he being a Protestant, were strong motives with the ministry for supporting his cause, and frequent addresses were sent from the Commons to that effect. But James, whose

pacific temper was averse from war, attempted to ward off the misfortunes of his son-in-law by negotiation. Finding, however, the whole nation roused, he was obliged to recur to force of arms. War was, thereupon, declared against Spain and the Emperor, and 6,000 men were sent over to assist Prince Maurice. This army was followed by another of 12,000, and France promised its assistance. But, upon sailing to Calais, they were refused admittance, and obliged to make towards Zealand, where, as no proper measures had been concerted for their disembarkation, a pestilential distemper broke out among troops so long pent up in narrow vessels: half the army died on board, and the remainder, being too small a body to proceed, returned home, and thus ended in disappointment this ill-concerted and fruitless expedition.

James was soon after seized with a tertian ague, which brought him to his grave in the 59th year of his age.

1625.—CHARLES I., REIGNED 23 YEARS, 10 MONTHS.

Charles, on his accession to the throne, found himself involved in a war with Spain, with an impoverished treasury, and a Commons determined to resist his high notions of prerogative, and very reluctant in granting him supplies. In this emergency, Charles had recourse to that kind of tax called a benevolence, which, although a very oppressive measure, had many precedents; and with this, the people, though very reluctantly, were for this time obliged to comply. But the greatest stretch of his power was in the levying of ship-money. The pretence for this tax was to equip a fleet, and each of the marine towns was required, with the aid of the adjacent counties, to arm as many vessels as were ordered: the city of London was rated at twenty ships. This was the commencement of that tax, which afterwards involved the whole nation in a flame.

At this critical conjuncture, Charles was impolitic enough to listen to the advice of his favourite Buckingham, who had conceived a private pique against the Cardinal Richelieu, minister of France, and to declare war against that kingdom. A fleet, under the command of the duke, was sent to the relief of Rochelle, a city which had embraced the reformed religion, and

was then besieged by the king of France. This expedition was as unsuccessful as that sent against Spain: the duke's measures were so ill-concerted, that the citizens shut their gates against him. Instead of attacking the isle of Oleron, which was fertile and defenceless, he attempted the isle of Rhé, which was well fortified, and was in consequence obliged to retreat with such precipitation, that half his army was cut in pieces before he could re-embark, though he was the last man that quitted the shore.

The dissension now between the king and Commons increased every day. The officers of the Customs were cited before the House, to shew by what authority they seized the goods of those who refused to pay the duty of tonnage and poundage, which they declared was illegally levied. From this they proceeded to the examination of religious grievances, in which they manifested the spirit of intolerance which actuated them. Charles, therefore, finding them entirely unmanageable, determined to dismiss them. Sir John Finch, the Speaker, rose up just as the question of tonnage was about to be put, and informed the House that the king had adjourned it. Upon this the whole assembly was in confusion; the Speaker was pushed back into his chair, and forcibly held there till a short remonstrance was passed, rather by acclamation than by vote. In this violent production, Catholics and Arminians were declared capital enemies of the state; tonnage and poundage were pronounced illegal, and those who paid them, as well as those who raised the duty, were considered as guilty of capital crimes.

While the king was thus experiencing the animosity of the Commons, a severe blow was given him in the death of his favourite Buckingham, who fell by the desperate hand of one Felton, a gloomy enthusiast, as he was giving orders for the embarkation of some troops at Portsmouth.

The king, now left without a prime minister, prudently resolved to make peace with the powers against which he had carried on war, and bend all his endeavours to regulate the internal policy of his kingdom. For this purpose he chose Sir Thomas Wentworth, afterwards Earl of Strafford, a man of the most eminent abilities

and unshaken loyalty; and Laud, afterwards Archbishop of Canterbury.

Tonnage and poundage were, however, still levied by the king's sole authority, and compositions made with the Catholics, which gave great offence to the Puritans. The high commission court of Star Chamber exercised its authority, independently of any law, upon several of these violent innovators, who only gloried in their sufferings, and contributed to render the government odious and contemptible. But the levying of ship-money, as it was a burthen felt by all, gave universal dissatisfaction. (A. D. 1638.) One Hampden, of whom Clarendon says, that "he had a heart to conceive, a head to contrive, and a hand to execute any villany," refused to comply with the tax. The case was argued twelve days before all the judges of England, while the nation looked with the utmost anxiety to the result of a trial that was to limit the power of the king. All the judges but four gave sentence in favour of the crown, though the king lost more than he gained, by the spirit of opposition it engendered in the people, who hailed Hampden as the supporter of their liberties.

Whilst the discontents of the nation were thus ready to break out into open rebellion, Charles imprudently attempted to set up episcopacy in Scotland. This produced an universal opposition, and the Scots flew to arms with the greatest animosity. Charles now found himself once more obliged to call a parliament, to procure supplies; but all he obtained from it were murmurings and complaints. Finding no hopes of compliance, he dissolved it, and had recourse to other measures. His wants still increasing, he again summoned a parliament, which did not cease sitting till it had overturned the constitution. Instead of granting the subsidies demanded, they struck a decisive blow, by impeaching the Earl of Strafford of high treason. After a long and eloquent speech, delivered without premeditation, in which he fully confuted all the accusations of his enemies, he was adjudged guilty, and nothing remained but for the king to consent to the bill of attainder. Charles, who tenderly loved the Earl of Strafford, hesitated, and tried every expedient to put off the signing of the warrant for his execution. While

he was in this agitation, he received a letter from that unfortunate nobleman, which marks the heroic, though misjudged, bravery with which he was animated. He desired that the king would not hesitate in making a sacrifice, which might lead to the mutual reconciliation between him and his people; adding, he was prepared to die, and that, to a willing mind, there could be no injury. (A. D. 1641.) At last, after a most violent struggle with his conscience, Charles had the weakness to grant a commission to four noblemen, in his name, to give the royal assent to the bill, flattering himself, perhaps, that as neither his will consented to the deed, nor his hand immediately engaged in it, he was the more free from the guilt that attended it. At the same time he empowered them to give his assent to a bill which proved equally fatal to himself, viz. that the present parliament should not be prorogued or adjourned without their own consent; thus rendering that power perpetual which had already proved so uncontrollable.

In the midst of these troubles, the Irish, goaded by the persecutions of the Puritans, who were headed by the Lords Chief Justices Parsons and Borlase, and exasperated by the execution of martial law, broke out into open insurrection, and retaliated upon their oppressors the cruelties which themselves had so dreadfully experienced. Charles, unable of himself to put a stop to these disasters, once more applied to the Commons: who, instead of affording assistance, insinuated, that he had himself promoted the rebellion; and they now made that spirit of republicanism appear which finally destroyed the monarchy.

They began their operations by an attack on Episcopacy, which they knew to be one of the strongest bulwarks of the regal power. They accused thirteen bishops of high treason, and endeavoured to prevail upon the peers to exclude all the prelates from their house. The bishops, who saw the storm gathering, and who were noways ambitious of the title of martyrs, instead of supporting their king and the constitution, pusillanimously shrunk from their duty, and resolved to attend the House of Lords no longer.

This was a fatal blow to the royal cause, and Charles's imprudence served to augment it. Finding that all his

compliance had but increased their demands, he could no longer suppress his indignation, and gave orders to the attorney-general to enter an accusation of high treason against Lord Kimbolton, Sir Arthur Hasling, Hollis, Hampden, Pym, and Strode. Scarcely had the people time to wonder at the imprudence of this measure, when they were astonished at one still more rash and unsupported. The king himself went to the House of Commons, and took possession of the Speaker's chair, telling them he was come to seize the members accused of high treason. Finding, however, that they had withdrawn before his arrival, he proceeded, amidst the clamours of the people, who cried out, "privilege, privilege," to the common council of the city, who answered his complaints with a contemptuous silence. Returning to Windsor, he began to reflect, when too late, on the rashness of his proceedings. He wrote, therefore, to the Parliament, to assure them that he desisted from the proceedings against the accused members, and would in future be as careful of their privileges as of his life or crown. His former precipitation had rendered him obnoxious to the Commons, his present submission made him contemptible.

The Commons, in order to get the army into their own hands, under pretence of a dread of the Papists, petitioned to have the Tower delivered to them; and that Hull, Portsmouth, and the fleet, should be intrusted to persons of their choice. With this the king was obliged to comply. Each compliance, however, only begot a fresh demand. They now pretended a great dread of the Irish Catholics, and requested to have a militia raised, and governed by officers of their own nomination. Charles here determined no longer to comply, and peremptorily refused the demand. His refusal broke off all further treaty, and now both sides determined to have recourse to war.

As the king's forces were in a very low condition, he withdrew to Derby, and thence to Shrewsbury, in order to countenance the levies his friends were making in those quarters. The Parliament, on their side, were not remiss. They had already enlisted forces, on pretence for the service of Ireland, and the command was given to Essex, a man of considerable experience. They

moreover held the public purse, while the king could only be supplied by his loyal subjects, chiefly Catholics, who, notwithstanding all the penal laws against them, and the persecutions they met with, continued eminently loyal and attached to their prince, from the first conflict at Edgehill till the restoration of Charles II. Their numbers in the royal cause were so conspicuous, that notice is taken of it in several declarations, and from them the whole royal army received the denomination of "the Popish army;" whilst, on the other hand, not one Catholic officer appeared in the army of the Parliament.

At Edgehill the first blood was spilt in the royal cause. The battle was obstinately contested; and, after a loss of 5,000 men, both parties separated without any advantage on either side.

Upon the whole, this first campaign was favourable to Charles. The Parliamentarians were defeated at Stratton Hill, in Devonshire; again at Roundaway Down, near Devizes; and a third time at Chalgrove Fields. The battle of Newbury was also favourable; several cities were taken, and great expectations were formed of the Marquis of Newcastle, who was raising an army in the North.

1644.—The next campaign, however, proved disastrous to the king. The battle of Marston-moor was fought the beginning of July. Victory was, for a long time, doubtful. Prince Rupert, the king's nephew, who commanded the right wing of the royal army, having pursued too far, was attacked in flank by Cromwell, totally routed, and all his artillery taken. The battle of Naseby, which followed, decided the fate of Charles, and put the Parliamentarians in possession of almost all the strong cities of the kingdom. (A. D. 1645.) Unsuccessful at all points, Charles retreated to Oxford, which, in all conditions of his fortune, had remained faithful to him. Fairfax, however, the Parliamentarian general, was soon before that city with a victorious army, and prepared to besiege it. In this desperate situation of his affairs, Charles embraced a measure which proved his ruin. He resolved to seek refuge among the Scots, who had not shewn such violent animosity against him; but no sooner was he in their power, than they

entered into a treaty with the English Parliament, and upon payment of £400,000, delivered him to his implacable foes.

Finding himself without the least hope, he determined, if possible, to spare any further effusion of blood, and therefore absolved his followers from their oath of allegiance.

The king in their power, and having no enemy to fear, the rebels began to quarrel among themselves. The Parliament, wishing to get rid of the army, proposed to disband a part, and send the remainder over to Ireland. This was by no means relished by the soldiers; and Cromwell, who had acquired great influence over them, took care to augment their disaffection. In opposition to the Parliament, they set up a military one, composed of the officers, who represented the peers, and of two deputies from each company of the soldiers, as a House of Commons. Cromwell, who secretly influenced all these measures, resolved, in order to give some colour of authority to their proceedings, to get the king into his custody; and accordingly despatching a party of horse to Holmsby Castle, where the king was confined, he was seized and conducted to the army.

The minority of the Commons, who were for the army, secretly withdrew from the house, and were received by the soldiers with shouts and acclamations, as true patriots, while the whole army, to the amount of 20,000, prepared to reinstate them in their former seats. The part that remained behind, resolving to act with vigour, gave orders to enlist troops; but at the approach of Cromwell, all their resolution forsook them, and the gates were opened to the general, with every mark of respect and submission.

Perceiving their error when too late, the Parliament attempted to open a negotiation with the king; but the army, sensible of its power, sent an officer to secure the king's person, and surrounding the Parliament House, seized forty-one members of the Presbyterian party, and expelled 160 more, allowing none to remain behind but the most furious Independents, who afterwards received the name of "the Rump Parliament."

A committee was now appointed to proceed against the king, whom they were determined to sacrifice. He was

conducted to London, and immediately brought before the High Court to take his trial. The court consisted of 133 persons, named by the Commons, chiefly officers of mean birth; the remainder were a few members of the lower house, and some citizens of London. The king began his defence with denying the authority of the court. He insisted that being himself the head and source of the law, he could not be tried by laws to which he had not consented; that, moreover, there was no appearance of an upper house, to constitute a just tribunal; that having been intrusted with the liberties of his people, he would not betray them, by acknowledging power founded on usurpation. Three times was the king brought before this tribunal, and as often protested against its authority. On the fourth, as he was taken thither, the soldiers and mob insulted him, crying out, "Justice! Execution!" The judges, having proceeded in the formality of examining witnesses, at length passed sentence upon him, for having levied arms against the Parliament. On being conducted out of court, the guards were again urged to insult him, and one of the rabble presumed to spit in his face, on which he only meekly observed, "My Saviour suffered much more for me." One of the soldiers, moved with compassion, could not help saying, "God bless you:" upon which an officer struck the poor fellow to the ground, and the king could not refrain from saying, that "the punishment exceeded the offence."

This unheard-of trial, which struck all with amazement, was no sooner ended than the king employed his whole thoughts in preparing for death. He requested permission to see his children, which was granted, and also three days to prepare himself for execution. All that remained of his family in England were the Princess Elizabeth, about twelve years old, and the Duke of Gloucester, about eight. After many exhortations to his daughter, he took his son in his arms, and tenderly embracing him, said: "My child, they will cut off thy father's head, and make thee king; but mark what I say, thou must not be a king as long as thy brothers live. They will cut off their heads when they can catch them, and thy head too will they cut off at last; therefore I charge thee do not be made a king by them."

The child, bursting into tears, replied: "I will be torn in pieces first."

The fatal morning being arrived, he rose early from a sound sleep, and after dressing himself with more that ordinary care, as for some joyful solemnity, he was led through the Banqueting-house to the scaffold, attended by Bishop Juxon. The people in great crowds stood at a distance. The king surveyed with a calm and serene countenance all these preparations for death; and finding he could not be heard by the people at so great a distance, he addressed himself to the few persons around him: he there justified himself for taking arms, acknowledging, that although he was innocent towards his people, he was justly punished by his Maker for having consented to the unjust sentence of the Earl of Strafford. He forgave all his enemies; and after exhorting the people to return to their obedience to his son, he took off his cloak, and pronouncing the word "remember" to bishop Juxon, he laid his head on the block, and on stretching his hand as a signal, his head was severed from his body at one blow, and the executioner holding it up, exclaimed, "This is the head of a traitor." Charles was beheaded in the 49th year of his age, 1649.

It is impossible to describe the grief, consternation, astonishment, and remorse which took place, not only among the spectators, but through a great part of the nation, as soon as the report of this fatal catastrophe was conveyed to them. Each blamed himself, either for active disloyalty to the king, or passive compliance with his destroyers; and even the pulpits, which some time before resounded with insolence and sedition, were now bedewed with tears of real repentance.

THE COMMONWEALTH.

1649.—OLIVER CROMWELL, PROTECTOR, 4 YEARS, 9 MONTHS.

THE dissolution of the monarchy followed the death of the king. On the 6th February the Commons voted "that the House of Lords was useless and dangerous, and the kingly office unnecessary and troublesome." They also voted it high treason to acknowledge Charles Stuart, son of the late king, as successor to the throne.

They next proceeded to punish those who had been remarkable for their fidelity to their late sovereign, and the Duke of Hamilton, Lord Capel, and the Earl of Holland, were executed. These proceedings irritated the Scots, and the insolence of the Independents inflamed their indignation still more. They now resolved to call over Prince Charles, who had for some time resided at Paris: he accepted their offer, but soon found himself no better than a prisoner in their hands.

In the meantime, Cromwell, who had been appointed to the command of the army in Ireland, prosecuted the war in that unfortunate kingdom with his usual success and ferocity: he had to encounter the royalists, under the Duke of Ormond, and the native Irish, under O'Neil. These troops he quickly overcame; and most of the towns, intimidated by his successes, opened their gates at his approach. But in his conquest he shewed a savage cruelty that would have tarnished the most heroic courage, putting every garrison to the sword that offered the least resistance. He was upon the point of reducing the whole kingdom, when he was obliged to return to oppose the Scots, who had levied a considerable army. He immediately marched against them with 16,000 men, and although the Scots were double the number of the English, they were soon put to flight with great slaughter, while Cromwell did not lose more than forty men.

After this defeat, Prince Charles put himself at the head of the remains of their army, which he reinforced by the royalists, chiefly Catholics, who had been excluded by the Scotch covenanters. To strengthen still further the royal party, he was proclaimed and crowned at Scone, on the 1st of January, 1651. Cromwell pursued the king's forces, and by cutting off all supplies, rendered it impossible for Charles to maintain his army: but observing that his way was open to England, he immediately directed his march thither, hoping to be joined by the royalists. In this, however, he was disappointed; terrified at the approach of Cromwell, they dreaded to shew themselves. Scarcely was the news arrived of Cromwell's march than he was himself with his army before Worcester, then occupied by the king's troops. He immediately fell upon the city on all sides:

the whole army of the Scots were either killed or taken prisoners; and the king himself, after giving many proofs of valour, was obliged to seek his safety in flight.

Charles now entered upon a scene of the most romantic adventures. Attended by a few friends, among whom was Colonel Gifford, a Catholic gentleman, well acquainted both with the roads and Catholic families, and favoured by the darkness of the night, he arrived at White Ladies the next morning. Here, cutting off his hair, colouring his face with walnut leaves, and dressed like a peasant, he committed himself to the fidelity of the Pendrels, three Catholics, poor men, and brothers, who with their family and other Catholics, to the amount of fifty-two, were greatly instrumental in concealing him and favouring his escape, notwithstanding the danger they incurred and the price set upon his head. After various attempts and almost miraculous escapes from his pursuers, and having passed a whole day in an oak-tree, whence he saw the soldiers in pursuit of him, he reached Shoreham in Sussex, embarked, and arrived in safety in Normandy. Cromwell, in the meantime, returned in triumph, and his first care was to punish the Scots, who had, as he said, "withstood the work of the Gospel." An act was made for abolishing royalty in that kingdom, and annexing it to the commonwealth as a conquered country.

In this manner the English Parliament, by the exertions of Cromwell, spread their undisputed authority over the whole British empire. Ireland was totally subdued by Ireton and Ludlow. The settlements in America were obliged to submit: and Jersey, Guernsey, Scilly, and Man, were easily brought under subjection. And thus, under a Parliament of sixty or seventy obscure persons, mankind beheld a great empire governed with vigour and success.

The Parliament next resolved to chastise the Dutch, who had indeed given but slight cause of complaint. Their chief dependence lay in the active valour of their admiral, Blake, who, although he had not embarked in the naval command till late in life, surpassed all that had gone before him. Many dreadful engagements ensued between him and Van Tromp, the greatest admiral the Dutch ever possessed. These actions were far

from decisive; but the Dutch, finding themselves crippled, their fisheries suspended, and their trade ruined, sued for peace; to which, however, the parliament gave but an unfavourable ear, rightly judging that while the force of the nation was exerted at sea it would diminish the power of Cromwell by land, which was now become very formidable to them.

This aspiring man soon perceived their designs; but, secure in the attachment of the army, he resolved to seize the sovereign power. For this purpose, he persuaded the officers to petition for payment of arrears and redress of grievances. The house was highly exasperated, and prepared an act, ordaining that all persons who presented such petitions in future should be deemed guilty of high treason. To this the army remonstrated; the Parliament replied, and the breach grew wider every moment. This Cromwell had foreseen. Upon being informed how matters were proceeding, he rose up in a seeming fury, crying out, that he was compelled to do a thing that made his hair stand on end. Hastening to the house with 300 soldiers, he entered, and stamping his foot, in an instant the chamber was filled with armed men. Then addressing himself to the members: "For shame," said he; "get you gone, give place to honester men. You are no longer a Parliament. I tell you, you are no longer a Parliament. The Lord has done with you." On Sir Harry Vane's exclaiming against this conduct, "Sir Harry," cried Cromwell with a loud voice, "O Sir Harry Vane, the Lord deliver me from Sir Harry Vane!" Then taking one by the cloak, "Thou art an adulterer;" to another, "Thou art a drunkard;" to another, "Thou art a glutton." "You," continued he, "have forced me to this. I have besought the Lord night and day, that he would slay me, rather than put me upon this work." Then pointing to the mace, he cried, "Take away that bauble." After which, turning out all the members, he ordered the doors to be locked, and putting the key in his pocket, returned to Whitehall.

The persons he chose for the next Parliament were the very lowest, and the most ignorant and fanatic of the rabble, well assured that such characters could not hold the reins of government. Their very names, borrowed from Scripture, served to shew the excess of their

folly. One of them called himself "Praise-God Barebones;" and from this ludicrous circumstance, their odd assembly was named "Barebones' Parliament."

At last they themselves appeared sensible of the ridicule thrown out against them. Some of them, by agreement with Cromwell, meeting earlier than the rest, declared that this Parliament had sat long enough, and accordingly resigned the power into his hands. Some of the members, however, proving refractory, Cromwell sent Colonel White to clear the house. They had placed one Mayer in the chair, who being asked by the colonel what they did there, was answered by Mayer very gravely, that they were seeking the Lord! "Then you must go elsewhere," cried White, "for to my certain knowledge the Lord has not been here these many years."

This shadow of a Parliament being now dissolved, the officers chose Cromwell Protector of the Commonwealth, and his power was proclaimed in all parts of the kingdom; and, without the name of king, he governed as absolutely as the most despotic prince in Europe. As he was feared at home, so he made himself respected abroad. The Dutch were humbled, after repeated defeats, and obliged to pay deference to the British flag. They were compelled to abandon Charles, to pay £85,000 as an indemnification, and restore to the English East-India Company a part of those dominions of which they had been dispossessed in a former reign. The ministry of France paid the utmost deference to the protector; and the Spaniards were no less assiduous to gain his friendship, though they did not prove equally successful. Cromwell, who understood little of foreign politics, regarded Spain with an eye of jealousy, and therefore lent the French court a body of 6,000 men, to attack the Spanish dominions in the Netherlands. By their assistance the French gained a signal victory; and, as a reward for the service, Dunkirk, which had just surrendered, was put into Cromwell's hands. But it was at sea the Spaniards were the most effectually humbled. Blake, whose fame had spread through Europe, became a dreadful scourge to the Spaniards. He sailed into the Mediterranean, whither no English fleet since the Crusades had attempted to advance, and there conquer-

ed all that opposed him. He next bent his course to Africa, and compelled the Dey of Algiers to make peace, and restrain his piratical subjects from committing any further depredations on the English flag. (A. D. 1655.) Thence he went to Tunis, and made the same demand: but the dey desired him to look at his two castles, and then do his utmost. Blake immediately forced his way into the harbour, burnt all the shipping, and sailed out triumphantly towards Cadiz, where he took two galleons, valued at nearly 2,000,000 pieces of eight. At the Canaries he burned a Spanish fleet of sixteen ships, and returning to England, died within sight of his native shore.

But with all this tide of success, and all this despotic power, the situation of the usurper was truly miserable. He had rendered himself at last hateful to every party, and only owed his safety to their mutual distrust of each other. To increase his wretchedness, his own family detested his usurpation; his favourite daughter, on her death-bed, upbraided him with his hypocrisy and crimes. Conspiracies were formed against him; and, to add to his calamities, a pamphlet entitled "Killing no Murder," was published: the most eloquent and masterly of any that came forth. "Shall we," says this popular declaimer, "who would not suffer the lion to invade us, tamely stand to be devoured by the wolf?" It is said, that after Cromwell had read this treatise, he was never seen to laugh, and was haunted with perpetual fears of assassination. He wore armour under his clothes, was attended by a numerous guard, and never slept above three nights together in the same chamber. At last a tertian ague put an end to a life of anxiety and horror, after an usurpation of nine years, in the fifty-ninth year of his age. (A. D. 1658.)

He was succeeded in his office of protector by his son Richard, who immediately assembled a Parliament; but the officers surrounding his house, forced him to dissolve it. Soon after, he signed his abdication, and lived in tranquillity upon his private fortune. His younger brother Henry, who had the command in Ireland, where he governed with great lenity, and had acquired considerable popularity, followed his example, and resigned without an effort.

The officers, now left to themselves, restored the Rump Parliament; but again dissolved it, and elected a committee of twenty-three persons, seven of whom were officers, and thus established a military government.

During these transactions, General Monk was in Scotland, with a body of 8,000 veteran troops. He had secretly corresponded with Charles, and finding himself eagerly looked up to by all parties, he immediately published a protest against the measures of the military government, and put his army in motion. He proceeded with the utmost caution, covering his intentions with the greatest secrecy and reserve. Even his brother, who came to him with a message from the king, was refused an audience upon the subject, because he had told his errand to Mr. Price, the general's own chaplain, and a man of known honour and probity. At last he reached St. Alban's, and sending a message to the Rump Parliament, who had ventured to resume their seats, desired them to remove their forces to country quarters. Some of the regiments willingly obeyed, and such as did not, Monk turned out by force, after which he took up his quarters at Westminster. The house voted him thanks for his services, when he desired them to call a free Parliament. The expelled members were restored; and, having a majority over the Rump faction, they repealed all the orders by which they had been expelled. They then dissolved themselves, and gave orders for the immediate assembling of a new Parliament.

At length the long-expected time for the sitting of a free Parliament arrived; but although the affections of all were evidently turned towards Charles, such were their fears, and so much danger had attended a freedom of speech, that no one, for some time, durst mention the king's name. At length Monk gave directions to the president of the council to inform them, that one Sir John Granville, a servant to the king, had been sent over by his majesty, and was at the door with a letter to the Commons. This message was received with transports of joy; Granville was called in, the letter read, and the king's propositions were immediately accepted He offered a general amnesty, without any exceptions but what should be made by Parliament; promised liberty of conscience in matters of religion; engaged to

leave to Parliament the claims of contested titles, and to confirm all these concessions by Act of Parliament.

In consequence of this agreement between the King and the Parliament, Montague, the English admiral, waited on King Charles to inform him that the fleet expected his orders at Scheveling. The Duke of York immediately went on board, and took the command as Lord High Admiral. The king embarked, and, landing at Dover, was received by General Monk, whom he tenderly embraced. He entered London on the 29th May, 1660, which was his birth-day, attended by an innumerable multitude of people, who, long rent by factions, and oppressed by a succession of tyrants, could not restrain their emotions of delight at beholding once more their constitution, with all its train of security, freedom and peace, restored to them.

THE RESTORATION.

1660.—CHARLES II., REIGNED 24 YEARS, 9 MONTHS.

The first measures of Charles gave universal satisfaction. Without regarding former distinctions, he admitted into his councils the most eminent men of the nation. As the Parliament had been summoned without the king's consent, it received at first only the title of "Convention," and it was not till after an act passed for that purpose that it received the name of Parliament. A proclamation was then issued, declaring, that such of the late king's judges as did not surrender within forty-one days, should not receive the benefit of the indemnity. Nineteen of these regicides surrendered: some were taken, and others escaped beyond the sea. The peers seemed inclined to great severity; but were restrained by the king, who, in the most earnest terms, pressed the act of general indemnity, which at length passed both Houses, with the exception of those who had an immediate hand in the king's death. Cromwell, Ireton, and Bradshaw, though dead, were considered proper objects of resentment; their bodies were dug from their graves, hanged, and then buried under the gallows. Of the rest who sat in judgment on the late monarch's trial, some were dead and others were pardoned: ten only were executed, and these met

their death with a fortitude worthy of a better cause. This was all the blood that was spilt upon the Restoration. These happy beginnings were not, however, of long duration: Charles's indolence and love of pleasure made him averse from all business; he bestowed his favours upon the worst as well as the best of his subjects, and took as little care to reward his friends as he did to punish his enemies. His continual exigencies drove him into measures no ways suited to his inclinations, and, probably with a view to procure a supply for his pleasures, he was induced to declare war against the Dutch. In this war, the English fleet, under the command of the Duke of York, the king's brother, met the Dutch, under Opdam, their admiral, when a bloody engagement commenced. The duke was in the hottest part of the fight, and behaved with great spirit. In the heat of the action the Dutch admiral's ship blew up, upon which the remainder immediately fled. Thirty ships were captured or sunk, while the victors lost but one. After various other battles, in which much blood was spilt and great treasures exhausted, a treaty was concluded at Breda, by which the colony of Nova Belgia, now New York, was ceded to the English, and remained in their possession till the American war.

The king now began to act in a very arbitrary manner. He had long wished to extend his prerogative, and to furnish himself with whatever sums he might want for his pleasures. He quickly found in Clifford, Ashley, Buckingham, Arlington, and Lauderdale, the ministers he wanted. This junto, distinguished by the name of Cabal from the initials of their names, were notorious both for their public and private conduct. The first result of their advice was a secret alliance with France, and a war with the Dutch. A dreadful naval engagement followed; night parted the combatants: the Dutch retired, and the English were too much crippled to pursue them. The French suffered very little, and it was supposed that they had orders to spare their own ships, while the Dutch and English should weaken each other by their mutual exertions. The murmurs of the people, at this impolitic waste of their blood and treasure, at last obliged Charles to make peace on terms proposed by the Spanish ambassador, who acted as mediator.

For form's sake, Charles asked the advice of his Parliament, and a peace was concluded.

Scotland now became a scene of discontent: Charles was not ignorant of the republican spirit of the Presbyterians, and therefore endeavoured with all his power to establish Episcopacy in that kingdom. Guards, commanded by Sir James Turner, a man of a very abandoned life and unrelenting character, were quartered through the country. An insurrection, in consequence of his severity, was dreaded: fresh troops were sent, under two officers of similar dispositions, who behaved with such violence that the Scots rose in arms, but were totally routed by the king's troops, at the battle of Pentland Hills.

Ten of these misguided insurgents were executed upon one gibbet, and thirty-five before their own doors. These executions were going on when the king wrote a letter to the council, ordering that such of the prisoners who would simply promise to obey the laws in future should be set at liberty; but Sharp, Archbishop of St. Andrews, purposely delayed giving it to the council: at which the covenanters were so enraged, that they waylaid and murdered him. They then once more proceeded to take up arms and make themselves masters of Glasgow: but they were attacked by the Duke of Monmouth, at Bothwell Bridge, and totally routed. The prisoners were treated with humanity; such as promised to live peaceably were dismissed, and about 300 who refused this condition were shipped for Barbadoes, but perished by the way.

The nation still continued to be disturbed by pretended plots against the king and the government. These were principally the invention of that unprincipled minister Shaftesbury, who secretly hated both Charles and the Catholics. Under his auspices was brought into Parliament the bill for excluding the Duke of York from the throne. He was supported by the friends of the Duke of Monmouth, the king's natural son, who hoped by these means to secure the throne for their patron. The debates on the bill were carried on with great violence on both sides: it passed the House of Commons, but was thrown out by the Peers. All the bishops except three voted against it, rightly judging that

they were in much greater danger from the prevalence of Presbyterianism than from Catholicity. The king was present during the whole debate, and had the pleasure to see the bill thrown out by a large majority.

Charles now determined to humble the Presbyterians. They were divested of their places, and their offices given to such as held with the court. The city of London, which had long been foremost in the popular party, was deprived of its charter, which was only restored upon the most humble submission, and on the degrading condition of subjecting the election of the magistrates to the king's immediate authority. The whole gang of spies, witnesses, informers, and suborners, who had been long employed by the leading pretended patriots, finding the king entirely master, now turned upon their ancient supporters, offered their evidence against those who had first put them in motion, and made the Presbyterians feel in their turn the cruelties they had inflicted upon the Catholics.

Shaftesbury, in conjunction with Monmouth, Russel, Algernon Sydney, and John Hampden, grandson to the famous one of that name, now formed a conspiracy to dethrone the king; this scheme, however, like the rest of Shaftesbury's plots, only ended in his disappointment; upon which he fled out of the kingdom to Amsterdam, where he ended his turbulent life, unpitied by his friends, and despised by his enemies. (A. D. 1683.)

Shortly after, another plot was discovered, which had for its object the murder of the king, in his way from Newmarket. Rumbolt, one of the conspirators, possessed a farm upon that road called the Rye-house, and thence this conspiracy was called "the Rye-house Plot." The house, however, in which the king resided, accidentally taking fire, he was obliged to leave Newmarket eight days sooner than was expected, and this probably saved his life.

Soon after this conspiracy was discovered, Russel, Sydney, and Walcot, were executed. Essex cut his throat in prison. Hampden was fined £40,000; and scarcely one who had a hand in this plot escaped, except the Duke of Monmouth, who was the most guilty of all.

This was the last blood spilt on account of these conspiracies real and pretended, which had continued to

disturb the nation during the greater part of this reign. Severe punishments were, however, inflicted on some for treating the Duke of York disrespectfully. The infamous Titus Oates, the principal agent in Shaftesbury's plots, was fined £100,000 for calling the duke a popish traitor, and to be imprisoned till he could pay it, which he was never able to do.

The government of Charles was now as despotic as that of any prince in Europe; but, to please his subjects by an act of popularity, he married his niece, the Princess Anne, to Prince George, brother to the King of Denmark. This was the last remarkable act of his reign. On the 2nd of February, 1685, he was seized with an apoplexy: upon being let blood he recovered his senses, but continued in a languishing state till the 5th, when Mr. Huddlestone, a Catholic priest, who had been so instrumental in saving his life after the battle of Worcester, was sent for to attend him. The king declared his desire to die in the Catholic faith, and having been admitted to the sacrament of penance, was asked if he desired to have the other sacraments of the church administered to him; he replied, "By all means: I desire to be partaker in all the helps and succours necessary for a Catholic Christian in my condition." He then received the holy communion with great devotion and humility, begging pardon fervently of God for his manifold sins; and thus prepared he died the next day, February 6th, aged fifty-four years and eight months.

1685.—JAMES II., REIGNED 4 YEARS, 7 DAYS.

Upon the death of Charles, his brother James entered into peaceable possession of the throne; and on the first Sunday after his accession, openly appeared at mass in the Royal Chapel. This inspired the Catholics with great confidence and proportionally depressed the Independents, whose plots had been entirely laid open. Oates, that notorious impostor, was sentenced to imprisonment for life; to pay 1000 marks on each indictment, and stand in the pillory five times, annually. Prance pleaded guilty, and made afterwards a voluntary confession. Dangerfield, another of the impostors, was also sentenced to the pillory, to be whipped and fined 500 marks.

Whilst the law was thus taking its course, the government was threatened with an invasion by the Duke of Monmouth and the Earl of Argyle. Monmouth, since the last conspiracy, had resided in Holland, where he was treated with great attention by the Prince of Orange. Argyle landed in Scotland, whilst Monmouth attempted a rising in the West. Upon the appearance of a considerable body of the king's forces, Argyle's men were immediately dispersed; he himself was wounded, taken prisoner, and executed at Edinburgh, in pursuance of a former sentence against him. Monmouth advanced to Taunton in Somersetshire, where he was proclaimed king, much to the surprise of his republican friends. Near Sedgmoor they were overtaken by the king's troops, and defeated; 300 were killed on the field of battle, 1,000 fell in the pursuit, and the rest were taken prisoners or dispersed. Monmouth was found in a ditch, in the disguise of a shepherd, exhausted by hunger and fatigue; and being conveyed to the Tower, was tried, condemned, and executed.

This conspiracy was no sooner suppressed, than misunderstandings arose betwixt the king and Parliament. During the urgency of the occasion, James had employed several Catholics in the army without the qualification of the test. This greatly displeased the Commons, who presented an address to him on the occasion. James, considering the power to dispense with these inabilities and penalties as a right invested in the crown, and which had undoubtedly been often exercised by his predecessors, would by no means give it up. Unfortunately, the king was surrounded by hypocrites and traitors, among which was particularly the Earl of Sunderland, who, pretending a conformity in religion with the king, urged him to a refusal, that they might push him on to his ruin. By their advice, several Protestants were displaced, and Catholics put in their room. Earls Powis and Arundel, Lords Bellasyse and Down, all Catholics, were made members of the Privy Council; Sir Edward Hales had a regiment given to him, and was made one of the Lords of the Admiralty. Sir Edward, however, was informed against by one Godden, in order to try how far the lawyers stood affected with regard to the dispensing power. All the judges

except one were in favour of the king's prerogative, and Sir Edward was accordingly acquitted, to the great joy of the Catholics. The king now published a proclamation, granting entire liberty of conscience and a freedom of religious worship to every British subject; to which was subjoined an order, that it should be read in every church and chapel throughout the kingdom. This occasioned a great ferment among the clergy: seven of the bishops refused to obey the mandate, and were committed to the Tower. Their cause was brought before the judges in the Court of King's Bench, where they were acquitted. This imprudent proceeding completed the king's unpopularity, and hastened the catastrophe which his perfidious enemies had been long preparing.

The Prince of Orange, who had kept up a secret correspondence with the traitors round the king, and was regularly informed by them of all the affairs in England, embraced the moment to put to sea with a fleet of fifty-two ships of war, five hundred fly-boats, sixty punts, ten fire-ships, and land forces consisting of 14,000 men. On the 4th of November he reached Torbay, and the next day landed his army without opposition. The Earl of Dartmouth, who commanded the English fleet, pretended that the unfavourable winds prevented his disputing the passage, or landing the troops. As soon as the Prince of Orange had completed his arrangements, he marched to Exeter: which, however, shut its gates against him. He remained there several days without being joined by any English of note, and at last, almost despairing of success, was preparing to retrace his steps, when he was joined by several persons of distinction; among others by Lord Churchill, who, though he had been raised from the rank of page, and owed his whole fortune to the bounty of the king, deserted from him, taking with him the Duke of Grafton, a natural son of the late king.

Almost every hour now brought to James the news of fresh desertions; he could no longer depend upon those who had appeared his most zealous friends. Even his beloved daughter Anne now resolved to leave him, and take part with the prevailing side. Upon hearing that the princess had followed the rest of his favour

ites, he was stung with the most bitter anguish, and could not forbear crying out in the extremity of his agony, "God help me, my own children forsake me!" Alarmed more and more every day with the prospect of a general defection, he resolved to follow the advice of those who counselled him to quit the kingdom. To prepare for this, he first sent away his queen and her infant son, the Prince of Wales, to Calais, and immediately afterwards disappeared in the night, attended only by Sir Edward Hales, Mr. Sheldon, and Mr. Labadie. (A. D. 1688.)

Upon the news of the king's departure, a number of the Peers and others met, and agreed upon an address to the Prince of Orange, praying him to take upon himself the administration of affairs, and send writs to all the boroughs, &c., for the election of members to meet in a national convention.

They met accordingly and came to the following resolution, that "James II., having endeavoured to subvert the fundamental laws of the realm, and withdrawn himself from the kingdom, had abdicated, and the throne thereby was vacant." This being agreed to, it only remained to settle how it was to be filled. Some were for declaring the Prince of Orange regent; others wishing him to be crowned king; a third party were for placing the crown upon the Princess of Orange. In the end it was agreed, that the prince and princess should be king and queen, and should reign conjointly: but that the administration of affairs should be in the hands of the prince alone. James died at St. Germains, 1701, aged 68, in the practice of mortification, penance and resignation.

CHAPTER II.

ECCLESIASTICAL AFFAIRS, &c.

Upon the accession of James I., the Catholics entertained great hopes, from the avowed disposition he manifested towards them, that now they might be relieved from their grievances, and enjoy the free exercise of their religion. This disposition of the king alarmed

his ministers, who were therefore determined to infuse into his mind a distrust of the loyalty of the Catholics, and raise a ferment among the people, which might effectually prevent the king's intentions, and ruin their expectations. The nation, accordingly, resounded with the speeches of violent declaimers against the danger of Popery, and the secret machinations of the Jesuits, the passions of the people became inflamed, and the feeble-minded James was forced to publish a proclamation, commanding all priests and Jesuits to leave the kingdom.

In the meantime, disputes ran high between the established church and the Puritans, who had, notwithstanding the act of conformity, greatly increased. This induced the king to call a conference at Hampton Court, where several warm debates arose between the parties in the presence of the king and privy council. The Puritans complained of an unfair and partial management of the dispute, and there is no doubt that the king shewed a propensity to Episcopacy, frequently inculcating the maxim, "No Episcopacy, no king." He was not, however, so much attached to the established church as entirely to disregard the interest of the other party who obtained so far as to have an alteration made in the Common Prayer.

The Gunpowder Plot, in which, as we formerly mentioned, it was suspected, even by many Protestant writers, that Cecil had a considerable share by secretly urging a few desperate wretches, came very opportunely to increase the animosity of the nation against the whole body of the Catholics. The Puritans, especially, did not fail to profit of the occasion, alleging, that the very principles of the Catholic faith engage them to such crimes. This absurd and malignant calumny, although disbelieved by thinking and sensible people, and by James himself, raised such a spirit of rancour and persecution, that the king was in a manner compelled to let loose the penal laws against his Catholic subjects.

To effect their purpose, under pretence of affording the Catholics an opportunity to prove their loyalty, the ministers employed one Perkins, a renegado Jesuit, to draw up an oath under the inspection of Archbishop Bancroft, which was well calculated, by its ambiguity,

to divide and disunite the Catholics as to the lawfulness of taking it; that in case of refusal, they might expose themselves to the penalties of the law, and nourish in the people an opinion of their enmity to the government. Unfortunately for the Catholics, amidst their disagreement and uncertainty with regard to this oath, they had no ecclesiastical tribunal in the kingdom to which they could recur for the direction of their conduct. The last of their national bishops, Dr. Thomas Watson, of Lincoln, died in 1584, in prison. By his death England was reduced to the situation of a foreign mission, under the immediate jurisdiction of the holy see, who placed the secular clergy under the direction of an archpriest, the Rev. George Blackwell, with episcopal jurisdiction. The regular clergy were left under the superintendence of their own superiors. The archpriest was one of those who maintained the lawfulness of taking the oath, as did Father Preston, superior of the Benedictines; their example drew many to the same opinion, whilst others as strongly maintained the contrary. A copy of the oath was sent to Rome for the pope's decision; who pronounced that it could not be taken. The archpriest persisted in his approval of it, and was in consequence deprived of his ecclesiastical dignity, in which he was succeeded by the Rev. George Birket. The English mission continued under the government of an archpriest till 1623, when Dr. Bishop was consecrated Bishop of Chalcedon, and placed at the head of the Catholic church of England. He chose a dean and eighteen canons as his chapter, and appointed five vicar-generals and twenty archdeacons as assistants for the distant counties. Dr. Bishop died in 1625, the year of the demise of king James, and was succeeded in his dignity by Dr. Smith.

This was the situation of affairs at the accession of Charles I. He had married a Catholic queen, which afforded fresh cause of suspicion and jealousy. Rumours of plots were continually spread abroad, and the nation, thus prepared by repeated ferments and alarms for the awful catastrophe of the Revolution, and its accompanying crimes.

The English seminaries abroad, which owed their establishment principally to Dr. William Allen, during

the persecutions of Elizabeth, when no Catholic was allowed to open a school, had been long an object of alarm. In the second year of Charles I., after various proclamations had been issued, an act passed, which adopted and increased one passed in the first of James, against foreign education. It was carried into unrelenting severity: twenty-three clergymen suffered death; many others were condemned. In addition to these sufferings, a new form of persecution was devised, which continued through the whole of this reign. A number of officers, under the name of Pursuivants, were authorized to apprehend Catholics, to enter and search their houses whenever they thought proper, to seize their books, and every other article which they might imagine to be used for any kind of devotion. Every rank in life was equally subject to these domiciliary visits, and to the insolence and barbarity with which they were often executed.

Cromwell, at the head of the Puritans and Independents, had no sooner assumed the reins of government than he published an order for unbounded liberty of conscience, but excepted Catholics and Episcopalians. To the Millenarians, who had a leading interest in the army, and whose fanaticism afforded full scope to his pious deceptions, he paid great attention. These men, who anxiously expected the second coming of our Saviour, believed that the saints, among whom they considered themselves to stand in the first class, were alone entitled to govern in the meantime. The candidates for holy orders were no more perplexed with Greek or Latin erudition; the principal object of scrutiny regarded their advance in grace, and fixing the critical moment of their conversion. With these pretended saints of all denominations, who put on the appearance of great humility, he discoursed, he sighed, he wept, and prayed. But to the Catholics, whose fidelity to Charles in his misfortunes was so eminently conspicuous, he shewed no mercy. Ordinances were passed in 1643, by which two-thirds of the real and personal estates of Catholics were sequestered; they were interrogated on oath as to their effects, and to make informers more eager, a shilling in the pound was given them upon all the property discovered.

At the Restoration, the beneficed clergy, as Echard informs us, were a medley of Presbyterians, Independents, Millenarians, and Anabaptists, who hated each other, and only agreed in their animosity to the Catholics. Frequent attempts were made by them to change their liturgy, some alleging that many parts were inexpedient; others, that it was sinful. Upon this, the act of uniformity was again enforced, and the king accompanied it with a declaration, that it was intended to be acted upon with vigour. The Commons thought they perceived in this measure an intention to favour the Catholics, and therefore lost no time in petitioning the king to recall his declaration, and put the laws in force to stop the growth of popery.

Still they suspected Charles of a secret inclination to favour the Catholics, and therefore they began, as had been the custom in former reigns, to represent them as abettors in every public calamity, and the contrivers of every plot against the government. The great fire afforded them an opportunity to display their ingenuity in this way. The calumnies they circulated upon this dreadful catastrophe were but a prelude to many other nefarious measures. One of these is usually called "Oates's Plot," although Oates was but the instrument, the unprincipled Shaftesbury having the honour of the contrivance. On the 12th of August, 1678, one Thirley, a chemist, Dr. Tongue, and Dr. Oates, two Protestant clergymen, of the most notoriously abandoned characters, gave to the king the account of this pretended plot. Its object was to kill the king, to set fire to the city, and massacre all the Protestants, without exception of age or condition. The circumstances attending this pretended discovery were so entirely devoid of credibility, that it is amazing how any, even the meanest, could give ear to them; and, as the late Mr. Fox, in his history of James the Second, justly observes, have put an "indelible disgrace upon the English nation, in which the king, parliament, judges, juries, witnesses, prosecutors, have all their respective, but certainly not their equal shares." So much, indeed, was done to inflame the minds of the people against the Catholics, that it produced a popular delirium, and not only caused the destruction of many innocent

persons, with loss of property and imprisonment to others, but every penal law was let loose, and even a general massacre of the Catholics was apprehended.

The Parliament, which ought to have repressed these falsehoods, and brought back the people to calm inquiry, were even more violent than the people themselves; and the prime minister entered furiously into the plot, and persisted in his inquiries, notwithstanding all the king's advice to the contrary. Charles, the person most concerned in the affair, was the only one that treated it with contempt; but nothing could stop the public fury, and the king, not having resolution and fortitude enough, found himself obliged to give way.

Titus Oates, the grand accuser, was now produced, and, with seeming reluctance, gave his evidence. This man had formerly been indicted for perjury, and dismissed from his situation for the most shocking practices; and although, on the present occasion, in his examination before the council, he contradicted himself at every step of his narrative, he became the favourite of the people, and was styled "The Saviour of the Nation."

1678.—In this state of the public feeling, an accident happened which seemed to confirm the prejudices of the people, and make the narrative of Oates, which now began to lose its effect, be implicitly credited. Sir Edmondbury Godfrey, a magistrate, who had twice examined Oates upon oath, was found dead in a ditch near Primrose Hill, in the road to Hampstead, after having been missed for four days, with his sword through his body, his money in his pockets, and rings on his fingers. His body was carried through the streets in procession, preceded by seventy clergymen. The populace did not hesitate to ascribe his death to the Papists; and such was the general infatuation, that no person, who had any regard for his own safety, durst express the least doubt concerning the information of Oates, or of the authors of Godfrey's murder.

To propagate still further the alarm, an address was voted by Parliament for a solemn fast. It was requested that all Papists should be removed from London, and access denied to all unknown and suspicious persons. Oates was lodged at Whitehall, and encouraged, by a pension of £1,200 a-year, to proceed in forging

new informations. The plot, however, beginning to grow stale, one Bedloe was brought upon the stage. He was like Oates, a man of very low birth, and had been noted for several cheats and robberies. This man deposed that he had seen the body of Sir Edmondbury Godfrey at Somerset House, where the queen resided, and that a servant of Lord Bellasyse had offered him £4000 if he would carry it off. Finding all this greedily received, the two witnesses now determined to go still farther, and had the audacity to accuse the queen. The Commons, in an address to the king, gave countenance to this scandalous accusation; but the Lords rejected it with becoming disdain.

As the main design of all these plotters was to exclude the Duke of York, a professed Catholic, from the throne, his secretary was the first who was brought to trial. Bedloe swore that he had received a commission signed by the superior of the Jesuits, appointing him papal secretary of state, and that he had consented to the assassination of the king. After his condemnation, many members of both houses offered to interpose in his behalf, if he would make an ample confession; but as he was in reality possessed of no treasonable secret, he would not save his life by falsehood and imposture. He suffered with calmness and constancy, affirming his innocence to the last. This trial was succeeded by those of Fathers Ireland, Pickering, and Grove, who went to execution with great resignation, protesting their innocence; but this made no impression on the spectators; they were Jesuits, and therefore pity was banished from the breasts of their countrymen. Hill, Green, and Berry, were tried upon the evidence of one Prance; and although Bedloe's narrative and Prance's information were entirely contradictory, and their testimony was invalidated by contrary evidence, all was vain; the prisoners were condemned and executed, denying their guilt to the last; but as Berry died a Protestant, this circumstance seemed to make some impression. Whitebread, Fenwick, Govan, Turner, and Harcourt, five Jesuits, were next brought to trial, and soon after Counsellor Langhorn. In this trial a new witness appeared against the prisoners, named Dugdale. This man spread the alarm still further, by

asserting that there were 200,000 Papists in England ready to rise in arms. It was proved that Oates was at St. Omer's at the time he swore he was in London; but all availed nothing, they were condemned and executed.

They were not, however, so successful on the trial of Sir George Wakeman, the queen's physician: they forswore themselves in so palpable a manner, that the jury could not avoid observing it, and the prisoner was in consequence acquitted.

The Earl of Stafford was the last man that fell a sacrifice to wretches who lived by perjury and blood. He was condemned, and executed on Tower-hill, where even his persecutors could not help shedding tears at that serene fortitude, which shone in every feature, motion, and accent of this aged nobleman.

The meal-tub plot was the next contrivance. One Dangerfield, more infamous if possible than Oates or Bedloe, a wretch who had stood in the pillory, had been whipped, branded, and transported for coining, was admitted as evidence of a design to remove the king, and new-model the government. The pretended conspirators were brought to trial, but were all acquitted, as it was now clearly discovered that nothing but bribes and revenge had prompted the whole gang of informers, and that their secret supporters were a faction who really designed to subvert the government and murder the king, as it afterwards clearly appeared by the discovery of the Ryehouse Plot.

To aggravate still more the persecutions which the Catholics endured during this reign, three acts were passed: first, the Corporation Act, which enacted that no person should hold any office in the government of any city or corporation, unless within a twelvemonth before he had received the sacrament, according to the rites and ceremonies of the church of England, and taken the oaths of allegiance and supremacy. Second, the Test Act, which obliged all officers, civil and military, to take the oaths of allegiance and supremacy; to make the declaration against the doctrine of transubstantiation; and receive the sacrament according to the usage of the church of England. Third, another act, by which a declaration was also to be made against Popery, invocation of the Virgin Mary, and the mass. It

enacted also, that no Peer should vote in the Lords, nor any member in the Commons, till he had taken the oaths of allegiance and supremacy, and subscribed the above declaration. By very great efforts, the Duke of York was exempted from this act.

The first step taken by James II. was in his speech in Parliament to claim the dispensing power: but the House of Commons voted an address against it. Foiled in his hopes of intimidating the Parliament into acquiescence, he endeavoured to gain his point through the medium of the courts of justice. He gave Sir Edward Hales a colonelcy, and dispensed with the provisions of the Test Act. Upon prosecution, Sir Edward pleaded the dispensation, and James having previously displaced four of the judges, and substituted others in their place, Sir Edward gained his cause.

This success encouraged James to bolder measures; he brought five Catholic lords, and Father Petre, a Jesuit, into the privy council; made Lord Arundel privy seal; put Lord Ballasyse at the head of the treasury, and advanced several Catholics in the army and navy.

His next step was to send an ambassador to Rome. The pope, who saw the hasty and imprudent measures of James, received him coolly, but sent a nuncio to England. James gave him a public reception at Windsor: four Catholic bishops were consecrated by the nuncio in public; and several of the clergy were permitted to appear publicly in the habits of their order.

James now ventured upon a step which caused a very great sensation among all the members of the established church: he ordered the Bishop of London to suspend one Dr. Sharp, for mentioning in his sermon the conversion of some Protestants to the Catholic faith in terms of reproach. The bishop refused to comply; upon which James issued a commission, by which seven persons were appointed with unlimited powers, as in the reigns of Henry VIII. and Elizabeth, over the church of England. They immediately proceeded against the bishop and the doctor, who were suspended from their functions.

He then attempted to nominate a Catholic president to Magdalen College, Oxford, and procured seven of the bishops who had petitioned against it to be committed

to the Tower; which completed the popular discontent, and prepared the nation for the revolution which shortly followed.

CHAPTER III.

LAWS, GOVERNMENT, COMMERCE.

UNDER the reign of the Stuarts, the nation, by a natural concurrence of events, began to shew the same spirit of innovation, and resistance to the government, in matters of liberty, as had been infused into them in the matters of religion, and a spirit of opposition displayed itself, to which the British monarchs had not, for a long time, been accustomed. But the storm which was only gathering during the reign of James I., burst with all its fury on Charles I., who had to cope with a whole nation, put in motion by the crafty wiles of an unprincipled ministry. The high notions of prerogative, which the Stuarts entertained, their indolence, irresolution, and fondness for favourites, did not a little contribute to their misfortunes. Compulsory wars, arbitrary imprisonment, martial law, the high commission court, the star chamber, which had been the apparatus of the Tudors, being again attempted by the Stuarts, when liberty was carried to licentiousness, the constitution was rent asunder, and the unfortunate Charles fell, an awful example to the universe.

The royal authority thus annihilated, fruitless attempts were made to substitute a republican form of government in its stead. Subjected at first to the power of the principal leaders in the Long Parliament, they saw that power expire, only to pass without bounds into the hands of the Protector.

Charles II. was then called over: but the spirit of rebellion and caballing was not extinguished, and the desire of once more causing a revolution still filled the breasts of some unprincipled wretches, who, to gain their ends, had recourse to all sorts of calumnies and inventions against Catholics, to whom it was known Charles was secretly attached, and whose religion his brother, afterwards James II., professed. In this reign, however, that barrier of personal safety, the Habeas

Corpus Act, was established, and triennial parliaments enacted. In the reign of James I. colonies were planted along the coast of North America, which now form that flourishing kingdom, the United States. These greatly contributed to promote that spirit of industry and commerce, which has raised Britain to so pre-eminent a station among the powers of Europe. The East-India Company, having received a new patent from James, increased their stock to a million and a-half. In 1609 they built a vessel of 1,200 tons burden, the largest merchant ship England had ever known.

From the Restoration to the Revolution, commerce and riches rapidly increased. The two Dutch wars, by disturbing the trade of that republic, promoted the navigation of England. In the reign of James I. copper halfpence and farthings were coined. Most of the silver pennies having disappeared, retail business was, till then, chiefly carried on by means of leaden tokens. The coins of Cromwell exceed in execution any of that age. James II. coined gold pieces of the value of five pounds.

CHAPTER IV.

LEARNING, ARTS, &c.

Although the authors in the reign of James I. were many, both in prose and verse, they wrote mostly in a bad taste. Puns and quibbles were even propagated from the throne. The great glory of literature in this age was Lord Bacon, whose variety of talent as an author, a wit, a philosopher, a man of business, and a public speaker, justly claims the tribute of admiration. In the turbulent reign of Charles I., men of great abilities made their appearance. Then it was that the force and compass of our language were first fully tried, in the bold eloquence of the two parties, and the public papers of the king and parliament. Amidst the thick cloud of fanaticism which overspread the nation during the Commonwealth, the celebrated Boyle promoted his philosophical researches. After the Restoration, he, in conjunction with Wilkins, who had married Cromwell's sister, procured a patent, and having en-

larged their number, were denominated the Royal Society. But the patent was all they obtained from Charles: his craving courtiers and unlawful pleasures engrossed all his means, and left him neither money nor attention for literary merit.

Agriculture had been for centuries very imperfectly understood in Britain; but, at this period, considerable improvements were made in that beneficial art. The nation, however, was still dependant on foreign supply for their daily bread. Two millions sterling went out at one time for corn. It was not till the fifth of Elizabeth that the exportation of corn was allowed in England, and Camden observes, that agriculture from that moment received new life and vigour.

Before the civil wars, architecture and the fine arts were favoured at court, and a good taste began to prevail in the nation under Charles I., who employed Inigo Jones as master of his buildings. The monarch, notwithstanding his scanty revenue, lived in such magnificence, that he possessed twenty-four elegantly furnished palaces. He greatly delighted in pictures, sometimes handled the pencil himself, and was a connoisseur in the art. The pieces of foreign masters were bought up at a great expense. Vandyke was caressed and enriched at court. Laws, who had not been surpassed by any musician before him, was also much taken notice of by the king, who called him the father of music. In poetry, Waller, whose taste was formed under the first Charles, and who wrote during the brightest days of the second, is one of the chief refiners of our versification as well as language. But though the reign of Charles II. was crowded with writers and men of genius, it cannot be called the era of delicate or modest sentiments, and consequently of good taste.

CHAPTER V.

MANNERS, CUSTOMS, &c.

During the reign of James I. the pride of birth greatly prevailed. The gentry and nobility distinguished themselves by a stiff dignity and stateliness of beha-

viour. Great wealth acquired by commerce was rare, and had not then succeeded in mixing all ranks of men, and rendering money the chief distinction. The expenses of the higher rank consisted in pomp and show, and a numerous retinue, rather than convenience and true pleasure. The Earl of Nottingham, in his embassy to Spain, was attended by 500 persons. The fury of duelling prevailed more at this time than at any period before or since.

The condition of the English gentry, under so mild a prince as James, was peculiarly happy. No taxes were levied, no wars waged, no attendance at court required. The king did not affect splendid equipages, nor costly furniture, nor a luxurious table, nor had he prodigal courtesans. Hunting was his chief amusement, the cheapest pleasure in which a king can indulge. His expenses were the result of liberality, rather than extravagance. One day, while he was with some of his courtiers, a porter passed by loaded with money, which he was carrying to the royal treasury. The king observed that Rich, who was afterwards Earl Holland, whispered something to one standing near him. Upon inquiring, James found that Rich had said, "How happy would that money make me!" The king instantly bestowed it upon him to the amount of £3,000, saying, "I think myself happy in obliging a worthy man whom I love."

Charles II. was a man of easy and lively manners, and his courtiers affected the same character. They were chiefly men of the world; and, having experienced the effect of puritanical hypocrisy, which formed the leading feature in the manners of the Republicans during the usurpations of the Long Parliament and Oliver Cromwell, they fell into the other extreme, and without shame or disguise, violated the laws of religion, decency, and decorum, and a general relaxation of manners took place till the reign of James II., who was a prince of religious and moral habits, and therefore discountenanced the general licentiousness that prevailed.

CURIOUS PARTICULARS.

In the year 1626, the barometer was invented by Torricelli, a famous Italian mathematician: and, about

the same time, Dabelling, a celebrated Dutch philosopher, invented the thermometer and microscope. Logarithms were first invented by Lord Napier, in Scotland.

In 1635, a General Post Office was established; as was the Bank of England in 1646.

Coffee was first introduced into England in 1652; and tea about six years after, when it cost £3 per lb.

In 1662, pendulum clocks were made by Fromentel, a Dutchman. During the same year, fire-engines were first used.

In 1665 a dreadful pestilence broke out in London, which destroyed nearly 100,000 of its inhabitants. This was followed the next year by a terrible fire, which spread with such rapidity, that no effort could stop it, until it had laid in ashes the greater part of the city. This calamity, although it reduced thousands to great distress, proved beneficial to the city: the streets were widened, and the houses being built of brick instead of wood, became more secure and healthy.

In 1668, St. James's Park was planted, and made a thoroughfare for the public, by Charles II.

BOOK IX.

MILITARY HISTORY,

FROM THE REVOLUTION, IN 1688, TO THE END OF THE REIGN OF GEORGE III., CONTAINING A SPACE OF 131 YEARS.

1689.—WILLIAM III. AND MARY II., REIGNED 13 YEARS.

After William's accession to the throne, James sought an asylum in France, where he was received with the most cordial hospitality by the French king, who offered him a body of 15,000 French troops, to assist in regaining his kingdom; but James replied, that he would succeed by his own subjects alone, or perish in the attempt. He contented himself with about 1,200 British troops; and, embarking at Brest, arrived at Kinsale in Ireland, on the 22nd of May, 1689. He soon after entered Dublin amidst the acclamations of the inhabitants. He

found the lord lieutenant, Tyrconnel, devoted to his interest, his old army steady, and a new one raised, amounting to 40,000 men.

As soon as the season would permit, he marched to Coleraine, of which he possessed himself, and laid siege to Londonderry; which, though of no great importance in itself, is rendered famous by the perseverance with which it opposed all the attacks of the besiegers. The inhabitants endured the utmost fatigue and distress, being reduced to subsist on the most loathsome food, till they were at last relieved by a store-ship, which broke the boom laid across the river to prevent a supply, and arrived in safety, to the inexpressible joy of the besieged, and the disappointment of James's army, who were so dispirited, that they abandoned the siege, after having lost about 9,000 men before the place.

The Duke of Schomberg, William's general, soon after landed without opposition, and invested Carrickfergus, into which he threw about 1,000 bombs, which laid the town in ashes. The brave garrison, having spent their last barrel of powder, were obliged to capitulate, and marched out with all the honours of war; but Schomberg's soldiers, disregarding the capitulation, under pretence of cruelties committed by the Catholics, plundered and stripped the unfortunate inhabitants, without regard to sex or quality, and even publicly whipped some of the women between the lines.

William now took the command, and coming within sight of James at the Boyne, resolved to give him battle. Previous to the attack, William proceeded to review his troops; and riding along the lines for that purpose, was perceived by the enemy, who levelled a gun at him, which killed several of his attendants, and wounded him in the shoulder. It was immediately reported that the king was slain; but as soon as his wound was dressed, he rode through the ranks, and quickly undeceived them.

1690.—The next morning, June 30th, the battle began. James's forces behaved with great gallantry; but, unable to stand against the superior discipline and coolness of the English, they were broken and dispersed with the loss of 1,500 men. William lost about a third of that number; but among these was the Duke of Schomberg, who was accidentally killed by a discharge

of his own troops, while he was in the midst of a body of the enemy. During the action, James stood on the hill of Dunmore, surrounded by some squadrons of horse; and, at intervals, was heard to exclaim, when he saw his own troops repulsing their enemies, "O, spare my English subjects!" an exclamation which, though it does not add to his fame as a general, at least proves the goodness of his heart. He seems, however, to have lost all his resolution at this time, and even while his troops were yet fighting, he quitted his station, and fled to Waterford, where he embarked for France.

When he first deserted his troops at the Boyne, O'Regan, an old Irish captain, was heard to say, that if the English would exchange generals, the conquered army would fight them over again.

The victory of the Boyne was by no means decisive; and the friends of James, notwithstanding his flight, still opposed William. Saarsfield, a popular and experienced general, put himself at the head of the routed army, and marched to defend the Shannon. As James, however, had appointed St. Ruth to command over him, the Irish were universally discontented. On the other side, Ginkell, who had been appointed to the command of the English army, marched to meet him. The only fordable place was at Athlone, a strong town, built on both sides of the river. The English soon made themselves masters of the one part, while the other, being defended with great obstinacy, was considered impregnable; but a body of English advancing through the stream, and performing this desperate attempt with determined resolution, drove the enemy from their works, and forced them to surrender at discretion. St. Ruth, who was hastening to its relief, arrived only to have his own guns turned against him. Marching off, he took post at Aughrim, where he determined to await the enemy. The English were 18,000 strong, the Irish 25,000. A desperate engagement ensued, till St. Ruth being killed, his troops gave way, after a loss of 5,000 men, and retreated to Limerick, into which place Ginkell suffered as many as chose to retire, wishing to put an end to the war at once.

The siege of Limerick commenced August 25, 1691. Six weeks passed without any thing decisive. The gar-

rison was well supplied with provisions, and every mean of defence. Winter approached, and Ginkell had orders to finish the war upon any terms: he therefore offered such conditions that, even if the Irish had been victors, they could scarcely have refused them with prudence. It was agreed that the attainders should be annulled, the forfeited estates be restored, that the Catholics should enjoy the same toleration in religion as in the reign of Charles II., and that no oath but that of allegiance should be required of any one. In consequence of this treaty, the hopes of James were entirely at an end in Ireland, which quietly submitted to the English government.

During the war in Ireland, many wanton acts of barbarity had been committed; but in Scotland, in 1692, one far more atrocious took place, where Macdonald and all his clan, having neglected to take the oaths, were massacred in cold blood, under very enormous breaches of hospitality and friendship. All the houses were burnt to the ground, and the cattle and spoil divided among the soldiers.

The total reduction of Ireland, and the extermination or dispersion of the Highland chiefs who favoured his cause, did not entirely put an end to the hopes of James's party. Several of the Whigs joined the Tories, and made advances to the adherents of James; but their plan was betrayed, and Lord Preston and Mr. Ashton, whom they had deputed, were both seized and condemned. Ashton died without making any disclosures; but Lord Preston, upon promise of a pardon, revealed the whole plot.

The French, at last, became sensible of their bad policy in not having more effectually supported James, and now resolved to make a descent on England. In pursuance of this design, James was furnished with an army, consisting of a considerable body of French troops, some Scotch and English refugees, and the Irish regiments who had left Limerick at the capitulation, and had now become excellent soldiers. This army assembled under James in person near La Hogue, while Tourville, the French admiral, with sixty-three ships of the line, was to favour the descent.

Those preparations and all the plans were soon made

known to the English ministry by their spies. Admiral Russel was ordered to sea with all possible expedition, and discovering the French fleet off La Hogue, he prepared with 88 ships of war to give them battle. The engagement began with great fury, and lasted for ten hours, when victory declared for the English. The French fled with the loss of four ships, and were pursued during the two following days. On the first day of the pursuit, three French ships were destroyed and eighteen more were burnt in the bay of La Hogue. During the battle, James, who with his army viewed the engagement, was heard to exclaim, notwithstanding the extinction of his hopes, "See my brave English!"

So decisive was this blow, that from that time France entirely lost her pretensions to equality upon the ocean. James resigned himself quietly to his fate; no further attempts were made in his favour, though some plots, it was said, were laid to assassinate William; but James, so far from countenancing any of these, as some of his enemies have advanced, always expressed his utmost abhorrence of them; and the exemplary life he led in his retirement, his resignation, his austerities, and his piety, are alone a sufficient refutation of any such calumnies. He lived about seven years after this, and in his last illness, calling for his son, after much salutary advice, he conjured him to prefer his religion to any worldly advantage: a counsel which that prince strictly observed.

The war with France continued during the greater part of William's reign; but at length an end was put to it by the treaty of Ryswick. In the general pacification the interests of England seem to have been entirely neglected; and the only equivalent she received for all the blood she had shed, and all the treasure she had spent, was an acknowledgment of King William's title from the king of France. (A.D. 1697.)

Peace being thus established, there was now no reason for keeping up a large army; but William, who hardly thought himself king without military command, was unwilling to lessen those forces which had been granted during a period of danger. The Commons, however, to his great mortification, passed a vote, that all forces in the English pay, excepting a body of 7,000

men, should be immediately disbanded, and that those retained should be natural-born subjects. With this vote the king was so displeased, that he is said to have formed a design of quitting the nation; which design he was persuaded by his ministry to abandon, and consent to the passing of the bill. William, however, could not live without being at variance with his great political rival, the French king; and was busily employed in forming a powerful confederacy against him, when death put an end to all his projects. He expired March 8th, 1702, leaving behind him the character of a great politician, and a formidable general.

1702.—ANNE.

Anne, the second daughter of James by his first wife, ascended the throne at the age of thirty-eight; and pursuing the same system of politics as her predecessor William, war was immediately declared against France, by England, Germany, and Holland, on the same day. Lewis, who had not been able to suppress his joy at the news of William's death, was filled with indignation on the intelligence of such a combination. The Duke of Marlborough was appointed to command the British forces, and made generalissimo of the allied armies. In his first campaign, after forcing the French under Marshal Boufflers to retire before him, he took the city of Liege, in which he found an immense sum of money, and made a vast number of prisoners, which consoled the nation for some unsuccesful expeditions by sea. The next year Marlborough opened the campaign with the siege of Bonn, which held out but a few days. Thuin was retaken after a vigorous defence: Limburgh surrendered in two days; and thus ended the second campaign which secured to the allies the country of Liege and the electorate of Cologne.

In the campaign of 1704, the French king, finding Boufflers unable to oppose Marlborough, appointed Marshal Villeroy in his place: but Marlborough, who like Hannibal was remarkable for studying the dispositions of his antagonists, having no great fears of Villeroy, immediately flew to the assistance of the Emperor: taking with him a body of 13,000 British troops, he advanced with great rapidity to the Danube, where he

defeated at Donawert a body of French and Bavarians, and laid the dukedom of Bavaria under contribution. Marshal Tallard in the meantime had marched with 30,000 men to oppose his return, and was joined by the Duke of Bavaria; their united army amounted to 60,000 men, commanded by the two best generals of France. To oppose them, Marlborough was joined by 30,000 men under the celebrated Prince Eugene. Their united forces consisted of 52,000 men. After various marches and counter-marches, the two armies met at Blenheim. Here a terrible engagement ensued, in which the French were entirely defeated, with the loss of 12,000 killed on the field of battle, or drowned in the Danube, and upwards of 20,000 prisoners; and a country of 100 leagues in extent fell into the hands of the victors. The British were equally fortunate at sea: Gibraltar was taken by Sir George Rooke, and the prince of Hesse. The British fleet soon after came up with that of France and a battle was fought with great fury during six hours, when the van of the French giving way, the whole fleet followed their example; nor could it afterwards be brought to renew the action. The Spaniards in the meantime made an attempt upon Gibraltar, but their fleet was dispersed or taken, and their army gave up the enterprise.

In Spain, the Earl of Peterborough with 9,000 men took the city of Barcelona, and successively became master of the kingdoms of Arragon and Granada; of the strong city of Carthagena, and at last of Madrid, the capital, which he entered in triumph, and proclaimed Charles III. King of Spain without opposition. These were, however, considered as minor conquests; the victories of Marlborough alone engrossed the attention of the nation. In 1706, the duke met the French under Villeroy, near the village of Ramillies; an engagement ensued, in which the English gained a victory, almost as complete as that of Blenheim, and the whole country became the prize of the conquerors.

The French troops were now dispirited, and Lewis, who had long flattered himself with the hopes of conquest was humbled to such a degree as to entreat, and even beg for peace: but the allies were too much flushed with their success to grant it; they continued to

carry all before them; and the capital of the French monarch began to dread the approach of the conquerors. What neither the armies nor the politics of Lewis could effect, was brought about by the dissensions between the Whigs and the Tories. The councils of the queen had been hitherto governed by a Whig ministry; whilst in the nation a general spirit of Toryism prevailed. They began to form plans in opposition to Marlborough: they considered him as a self-interested man, who sacrificed the real interest of the nation, in protracting an expensive war, for his own private glory and emolument, as he had formerly done in regard of his king and master, James II. They saw their country oppressed by the continuance of the war; Spain had been lost; a part of the fleet under Sir Cloudesley Shovel had been sunk in a storm; reverses had been experienced in Germany, and their hopes had been disappointed in the Duke of Marlborough, who passed this campaign in marches and counter-marches for want of supplies from home.

These causes of general murmur and discontent soon brought about the dissolution of the Whig ministry. Previous, however, to their disgrace, they effected a measure of the greatest importance, viz. the union of the two kingdoms of England and Scotland. This had been attempted at the commencement of Queen Anne' reign, but some disputes arising relative to trade, the conference was broken up. Commissioners were now appointed, and the articles were soon agreed on. Considerable opposition was at first made in both countries, particularly in Scotland, where the thoughts of losing their independent government overbalanced all idea of interest, and fired the Scotch with resentment. But at length, notwithstanding all opposition, every article was approved by both Parliaments, and thus all were obliged to acquiesce in a union, of which, at first, they had not sufficient sagacity to distinguish the advantages. The Duke of Malborough in the meantime had passed over to Flanders, and the two armies met at Oudenade, where the French were once more defeated, and lost Lisle, Ghent, Bruges, and every town in Flanders. In the campaign of 1709, Tournay, an exceedingly strong town, garrisoned by 12,000 men, was taken

after a terrible siege of twenty-one days. Next followed the bloody battle of Malplaquet, where the French, 120,000 strong, were fortified in a position that seemed inaccessible. Nothing, however, was able to stand before the allied army; the French were driven from their fortifications, though with the great loss of 20,000 men on the side of the allies.

The last campaign of the Duke of Marlborough, in 1711, is said to have excelled all his former exploits: he so contrived his measures, that by marching and counter-marching, he induced Villars to quit a strong line of intrenchments without striking a blow. By such a continuance of success, he had gained to the allies a prodigious extent of country. From the beginning of the war till the expiration of his command he had perpetually advanced, and never lost any advantage which he had obtained. He frequently gained the enemy's posts without fighting; but where he was obliged to attack, no fortifications were able to resist him. He had never besieged a city which he did not take, nor engaged in a battle in which he did not come off victorious. Upon his return to England, however, after this campaign, the Queen, who now acted by the advice of the Tories, being resolved to make peace with France, dismissed the Duke of Marlborough, and gave the command to the Duke of Ormond, who had orders only to act on the defensive. Hence the operations languished, till at last peace was concluded between England and France, in 1713. In it was stipulated that Philip, now acknowledged king of Spain, should renounce all right to the throne of France; that the Duke of Berri, Philip's brother, should also renounce his right to the crown of Spain in case he became King of France; and that the Duke of Savoy should possess the island of Sicily with the title of King. The Dutch had the barrier granted them which they so much desired. The fortifications of Dunkirk were destroyed. Spain ceded Gibraltar and the island of Minorca, and France resigned her pretensions to Newfoundland, Hudson's Bay, and Nova Scotia. The King of Prussia had Upper Guelderland; and the Emperor, in case of acceding to the treaty, was to have the kingdom of Naples, the duchy of Milan, and the Spanish Nether-

lands. This famous treaty was signed at Utrecht on the 31st of May, 1713.

The latter part of Queen Anne's reign was a scene of intrigues between the Whigs and the Tories. The violence of these two parties, their cabals and tumults, made the situation of the Queen, who had not abilities nor vigour enough to repress them, very uncomfortable: her health declined; she fell into a lethargic slumber, and her distemper gained ground so fast, that the next day all her physicians despaired of her life. The members of the privy council were now summoned, and a letter was sent to the Elector of Hanover, requesting him immediately to repair to England. Precautions were at the same time taken to secure the sea-ports and the command of the fleet was given to Earl Berkeley, a professed Whig. These measures answered a double purpose: they shewed the alacrity of the Whigs in the cause of their new sovereign, and implied that the state was in danger from the opposite party. Queen Anne died on the 1st of August, 1714, in the fiftieth year of her age, and thirteenth of her reign.

THE HOUSE OF BRUNSWICK.

1714.—GEORGE I., REIGNED 12 YEARS, 9 MONTHS.

According to the act of succession, George, son of Ernest Augustus, Elector of Brunswick, and the Princess Sophia, grand-daughter of James I., ascended the British throne. An instantaneous and total change was soon effected in every office of honour and advantage. The Tories, who were now styled Jacobites, and against whom George had been led into strong prepossessions, were excluded from all share in the royal favour, which was wholly engrossed by the Whigs, who were also called Hanoverians. These early marks of aversion, which the king took no pains to conceal, alienated the minds of many from his person and government, who might otherwise have served with fidelity and affection. Among the principal changes, the Duke of Ormond was in his turn dismissed from the command of the army, which was restored to the Duke of Marlborough. Mr. Pulteney became secretary at war; and Mr. Walpole, who had already undertaken to manage

the House of Commons, was gratified with the double place of paymaster to the army and to Chelsea Hospital. These partialities excited much discontent; tumults became frequent, and every tumult served to increase the severity of the legislature. An act was passed, declaring that if any persons to the number of twelve unlawfully assembled, should not within one hour disperse after being required to do so by a justice of the peace, and after hearing the riot act read, they should be deemed guilty of felony without benefit of clergy. This was certainly a severe act, and a great restriction to the liberty of the subject, as by it all meetings of the people, either for amusement or redress, were rendered criminal, if a magistrate should please to consider them as such. These proceedings excited great indignation, particularly in Scotland, where to these grievances was joined that of the Union, which they were taught to consider as oppressive. The malcontents among the Scotch kept up a secret correspondence with those of England, till, considering their plans ripe for execution, the Earl of Marr assembled his vassals, proclaimed James III., and being joined by about 10,000 men, well armed and provided, he made himself master of the whole province of Fife. Proceeding to Dumblain, he encountered the Duke of Argyle: a battle was fought, in which both sides claimed the victory, though the advantage rested with the duke, who thus interrupted the progress of his antagonist.

In England, the Earl of Derwentwater and Mr. Foster took the field with a body of horse; and being joined by some gentlemen from the borders of Scotland, they proclaimed James III. in Worksworth, Morpeth, and Alnwick. They next attempted to seize Newcastle; but being unsuccessful, they retired towards Scotland, where they were reinforced by some of the Scottish insurgents. With these they again returned into England; but their forces being without subordination, and their chiefs disunited, they were overpowered at Preston, in Lancashire, by the king's forces, under Generals Carpenter and Wills, and obliged to lay down their arms.

James, now styled the Pretender, had flattered himself with the hope of seeing the whole kingdom of England rise in his behalf: but he was soon undeceived

by a fruitless voyage which the Duke of Ormond made to the western coast, to sound the dispositions of the people. Nothing now remained for him but to hazard his person among his friends in Scotland. He accordingly landed in that country, and was solemnly proclaimed at Scone, where he exercised some acts of royalty; but on the approach of Argyle, with a reinforcement of 6,000 Dutch troops, the chiefs of his party, finding themselves destitute of arms, money, and ammunition, abandoned the enterprise, and withdrew to their homes. The unfortunate James, after some of the most romantic escapes and adventures, embarked on board a small French ship, and in five days arrived safely at Gravelines, attended by the Earl of Marr and a few Scottish noblemen.

Such was the issue of a rebellion that proved fatal to many noble families. The Earls of Derwentwater, Nithisdale, Wintown, and Carnwath, together with Lords Widdrington, Kenmuir, and Nairn, were impeached and found guilty. Lord Nithisdale had the good fortune to escape by means of his wife, who dressed him in her clothes. Derwentwater and Kenmuir were beheaded on Tower Hill; twenty-two were executed at Preston and Manchester; four or five were hanged, drawn, and quartered at Tyburn; and about a thousand were transported to North America.

The year 1718 was remarkable for the signing of the famous quadruple alliance at London, between the Emperor, Great Britain, France, and Holland; in which it was agreed that the Emperor should renounce all pretensions to the crown of Spain, and exchange Sardinia for Sicily with the Duke of Savoy; and that the succession of the duchies of Tuscany, Parma, and Placentia, should be settled on the Queen of Spain's eldest son, in case the present possessor should die without male issue.

This treaty was not, however, pleasing to the Spaniards, and proved the cause of a war between the two countries. Upon its commencement, a squadron of twenty-two ships, under Admiral Byng, was ordered to cruize in the Mediterranean. Upon turning Cape Faro, near Messina, two small Spanish vessels were perceived. Byng pursued them closely, and thus was led to their main fleet, which he discovered in line of battle. The

Spaniards, notwithstanding a superiority of numbers attempted to sail away; but finding this impossible, they kept up a running fight. They were all taken except three, which were preserved by the good conduct of their vice-admiral, a native of Ireland.

This was thought a favourable juncture for the Pretender. Spain furnished the Duke of Ormond with ten ships of war and transports, having on board 6,000 troops, with arms for 12,000 more; but fortune was still as unfavourable to him as ever. The expedition encountered a terrible storm, which disabled the fleet, and frustrated the expedition. This misfortune, with the bad success of the Spanish arms in Sicily and other parts of Europe, induced Philip to sign the quadruple alliance, and peace was once more restored to Europe.

It was now two years since the king had visited his electoral dominions of Hanover. Having appointed a regency, he embarked for Holland; but on the road from thence; he was suddenly seized with a paralytic disorder, which soon deprived him of his faculties. He was conveyed to Osnaburg, where he expired on the 11th of June, in the 68th year of his age, and thirteenth of his reign.

1727.—GEORGE II., REIGNED 33 YEARS, 4 MONTHS.

From the accession of George II. till the year 1739, England was not disturbed by any foreign war; but for a considerable period the Spaniards in America had much distressed the commerce of Great Britain in those parts. As a right of cutting logwood in the Bay of Campeachy, claimed by the British, gave them frequent opportunities of pushing in contraband commodities upon the continent, the Spaniards resolved to put a stop to the evil, by refusing liberty to cut logwood in that place. The Spanish guarda-costas exercised great severities in the execution of this determination, and some of the English seamen were even sent as slaves to the mines of Potosi. Remonstrances were made to the Spanish minister; which produced no redress. The people became indignant, war was declared, and Admiral Vernon was sent with a squadron of six ships against Portobello, which was destroyed with scarcely the loss of a man. Commodore Anson was next sent

to distress the enemy in the South Sea; but the mismanagement of the ministry frustrated the project. He, however, after encountering dreadful storms, which dispersed his fleet, took a rich galleon, worth £300,000, with other captures to nearly the same amount, with which he returned to England, after a three years' voyage. Another expedition, to which this was subordinate, ended more unfortunately. It consisted of twenty-nine ships of war, with 15,000 seamen, and as many land forces; but the ministers detained them without any visible cause, till the season for action in America was almost over. At last they arrived before Carthagena, and soon became masters of the strong forts which commanded the harbour; but in the attack of the town by escalade, their guides were slain, and the forces, mistaking their way, attacked the strongest parts of the fortifications, where they were exposed to the whole fire of the place. The consequence was, they were obliged to retreat, after sustaining, with great resolution, a destructive fire during more than two hours, leaving 600 dead on the spot. The climate now began to make more havoc than the enemy; and, to add to the calamity, the naval and military commanders disagreed, blamed each other, and were at last obliged to re-embark the troops and withdraw as soon as possible. These miscarriages produced great discontents, and at last the storm burst upon Sir Robert Walpole, who finding a majority formed against him in the Commons, resigned his office, and was created Earl of Orford. The new ministers, who had so loudly declared for the liberty of the people, had no sooner entered into office, than they adopted the very measures which they had formerly reprobated. The nation had now become disgusted with naval expeditions, and wished for a renewal of their victories in Flanders, in which disposition the king ardently joined them; an army, therefore, of 16,000 men was sent over to take part in the quarrels that were then beginning on the Continent.

To trace the origin of these quarrels, it is necessary to go back a few years. After the death of the Duke of Orleans, who had been Regent of France, Cardinal Fleury undertook to settle the confusion in which that country was involved. Under him the nation repaired

her losses, and improved her commerce. During the long interval of peace, which his counsels had procured for Europe, two powers, till then unregarded, began to attract the notice and jealousy of the neighbouring nations; these were Russia and Prussia. The empire of Germany remained under the government of Charles VI., who had been placed upon the throne by the treaty of Utrecht. Sweden still languished from the destructive projects of Charles XII. Denmark was inclined to peace; and part of Italy remained subject to those princes who had been imposed upon it by the treaty. All these states continued to enjoy profound peace till the death of Augustus, King of Poland, by which Europe was once more involved in a flame.

The emperor assisted by Russia, declared for the Elector of Saxony; while, on the other hand, France supported Stanislaus, who had already been nominated by Charles XII. of Sweden. The views of France were seconded by Spain and Sardinia, who both hoped to share in the spoils of Austria. A French army soon overran the empire, while the Spaniards were equally fortunate in the kingdom of Naples. The emperor was soon obliged to sue for peace; but the French, in consideration of receiving Lorraine and some other valuable territories, agreed to abandon the interests of Stanislaus, who was obliged to renounce his title to Poland.

The emperor Charles VI. dying October, 1740, the French court seized this opportunity as favourable to their plans of ambition. Regardless of the pragmatic treaty, by which the late emperor's dominions were guaranteed to his daughter, Maria Teresa, they caused the Elector of Bavaria to be crowned emperor. Thus the Queen of Hungary was stripped of her inheritance; and at the same time she lost the province of Silesia, by an irruption of the King of Prussia, while France, Saxony, and Bavaria attacked her other dominions. Britain alone was willing to succour her; in which she was subsequently joined by Holland, Russia, and Sardinia. A body of British forces was sent into the Netherlands, where, being joined by 16,000 Hanoverians, they made a diversion upon the dominions of France. These quickly retrieved the desperate affairs of the Queen of Hungary, and turned the scale of victory. The French

were driven out of Bohemia; and her rival, the Elector of Bavaria, expelled from his dominions, retired to Frankfort, where, forsaken by his allies, he lived in obscurity. The British now advanced to join Prince Charles, the queen's general. To prevent them, the French opposed an army of 60,000 men. The British army was commanded by the Earl of Stair, who suffered his army to be surrounded and attacked by the French with great impetuosity. The enemy, however, were obliged to repass the Maine, with the loss of 5,000 men.

In Italy the French gained some advantages: but their chief hopes were in a projected invasion of England. The troops destined for this expedition were commanded by the famous Count Saxe: but the whole project was defeated by the appearance of Sir John Norris, who obliged the French fleet to put back; and their transports being damaged in a gale of wind, the intended descent was entirely frustrated. The national joy was, however, in some measure damped by the conduct of Admirals Matthews and Lestock, who, through a misunderstanding between themselves, suffered a French fleet of thirty-four sail to escape.

In the Netherlands, Count Saxe, with 120,000 men, overran the whole country, and laid siege to Tournay. To save this important place was fought the bloody battle of Fontenoi, in which the Dutch behaved very badly, and the allies under the Duke of Cumberland lost 12,000 men. The French lost nearly the same number.

In 1745, the son of the Pretender resolved to make an effort to recover what he thought his ancient right. Furnished with a small sum of money from France, he landed on the coast of Lochabar with 2,000 men. Proceeding towards Edinburgh, on the road to which his forces continually increased, he entered the capital without opposition, but was unable to reduce the castle. Near Preston Pans he was attacked by Sir John Cope with the king's forces, whom he defeated with the loss of 500 men. This victory inspired his men with great confidence, and it was determined in a council of war to proceed towards England, which they entered, and advanced as far as Manchester, where they were joined by Colonel Townley, with about 200 English. The young Pretender proceeded on till within 100 miles

of London, and the capital began to be in great alarm. Had he continued boldly to march on with the same expedition, he might perhaps have made himself master of it; but the Highland chiefs, who were under no subordination, would proceed no further, and Charles was obliged to retreat. This he effected without loss, and laid siege to Stirling Castle. General Hawley, who commanded a body of troops near Edinburgh, undertook to raise the siege; but was completely defeated, with the loss of all his baggage. (A. D. 1746.) This was Charles's last triumph; the Duke of Cumberland overtook him at Culloden; an engagement ensued, in which the rebels were defeated with great slaughter, and a final period put to the hopes of the Pretender. The conquerors behaved with great cruelty, refusing quarter to the wounded, and spreading desolation wherever they went. Charles, notwithstanding the great rewards offered to apprehend him, arrived safely in France, after a variety of surprising adventures and escapes.

Soon after this battle the Duke of Cumberland returned to Flanders, to resume the command of the army, where the French carried all before them; though their victories were counterbalanced by their ill success in Italy, and very considerable defeats at sea.

1748.—At length, all parties being weary of the war, a congress was held at Aix-la-Chapelle, where a treaty of peace was concluded.

In 1751 died Frederic Prince of Wales, the father of George III. He was much regretted by the nation; his affability had made him popular, and those who opposed the administration had grounded all their hopes of redress upon his accession to the throne. In 1749, a plan had been formed to encourage those who had been discharged from the army and navy to settle in Nova Scotia. This cold and barren spot was the cause of the renewal of hostilities between the French and English, which soon spread devastation over every part of the globe. Negotiations, mutual accusations, and, at last, hostilities, took place. Four operations were undertaken at once by the English in America. Colonel Monkton had orders to drive the French from their encroachments upon Nova Scotia; General Johnson was sent against Crown Point; General Shirley

against Niagara; and General Braddock against Fort du Quesne. In these expeditions Monkton was successful; Johnson was also victorious; Shirley lost the season of operation, and Braddock was defeated and killed. But at sea the British were so successful, that the French navy was unable to recover itself during the continuance of the war.

The French now threatened, as usual, an invasion, which never took place; but they landed a numerous body of troops at Minorca, and invested the citadel of St. Philip, reckoned the strongest in Europe; but at this time the garrison had been neglected, and was noways prepared for a vigorous defence.

To raise the siege, Admiral Byng was despatched with a squadron of ten men-of-war, with orders to relieve Minorca, or at any rate to throw in a body of troops. This last undertaking he deemed too hazardous. A French fleet soon after appeared nearly equal to his own: but Byng was resolved to act only upon the defensive. The French advanced: a slight engagement ensued, when they slowly sailed away, and no other opportunity occurred afterwards to bring them to action. It was then resolved, in a council of war, to sail to Gibraltar, in order to refit, as the relief of Minorca was deemed impracticable.

Nothing could exceed the resentment of the nation at this conduct. Byng was brought home under arrest: tried, and sentenced to be shot; which sentence he suffered with great resolution, protesting his innocence as to any treasonable intent. It is thought by some that the ministry secretly encouraged the resentment of the nation, in order to screen themselves be this as it may, the severity of this execution certainly produced very beneficial effects to the nation soon after.

The ministry had entered into a treaty with Russia, by which 50,000 Russians were to act in the British service, in case Hanover should be invaded by the French; but as the King of Prussia declared that he would suffer no foreign troops to enter the empire, the ministers were obliged to drop their Russian connection, and conclude a treaty with Prussia. From this alliance a new combination quite opposite to the former took place. Britain opposed France in America, Asia,

and on the ocean; France attacked Hanover; which the King of Prussia undertook to defend; Austria had its views on Prussia, and was seconded by Saxony, France, Sweden, and Russia; which latter power had long had a wish for some settlement in the west of Europe.

In the East, Clive was very successful; he drove the enemy from the province of Arcot, took the French general prisoner, and reinstated the nabob in his dominions.

1756.—Surajah Dowlah, Nabob of Bengal, and the most powerful prince in that country, was, by the intrigues of the French, induced to declare war against the English; and levying an immense army, laid siege to Calcutta, one of the chief forts in that part of the world belonging to the British, but which was not in a state of defence sufficient to withstand an attack. (A. D. 1756.) The fort was taken, and the garrison, of 146 men, were seized and thrust into a prison called the Black Hole; where, from the closeness of the dungeon, and the intense heat of the climate, these poor wretches, after enduring the most excruciating torments from thirst and suffocation, died to the number of 123, so that only twenty-three survived the next day, and they in a high state of putrid fever. Calcutta was speedily retaken by Clive; the victory of Plassey followed, and the inhuman Surajah Dowlah was defeated, deposed, and put to death.

The conquests of the British in the Western world were even more splendid than those in the East; which may be chiefly ascribed to the vigorous administration of Pitt, who about this time came into power. An expedition was set on foot against Cape Breton, under General Amherst and Admiral Boscawen; another under General Abercrombie, against Crown Point and Ticonderago; and a third under Brigadier Forbes, against Fort du Quesne. The fortress of Louisburgh, which defended the island of Cape Breton, was very strong, both by nature and art: the garrison was numerous, the commander vigilant: but the activity of the British surmounted every obstacle; the place surrendered, and its forts were demolished. The expedition against Fort du Quesne was equally successful; but that against Crown Point miscarried. In 1759 it was resolved to attack the French in several parts of

their empire at once. General Amherst, with 12,000 men, was ordered to attack Crown Point once more; General Wolfe was to undertake the siege of Quebec, while General Prideaux and Sir William Johnson were to attempt a French fort near the Cataracts of Niagara. This was the first that succeeded; a body of French troops that attempted to relieve the fort were defeated, and the garrison surrendered prisoners of war. Crown Point was, upon the arrival of Amherst, deserted and destroyed. There remained but one decisive blow to reduce all North America under the British dominion, and this was the taking of Quebec; which, when we consider its situation on the side of the great river St. Lawrence, the fortifications with which it is secured, the natural strength of the country, the great number of vessels and floating batteries which the enemy had provided for the defence of the river, or the numerous body of savages hovering round the English army, offered a combination of difficulties which might perplex and discourage the most resolute commander. The general himself was fully aware of the difficulty of the undertaking. After stating, in a letter to the ministry, the dangers that presented themselves, he adds: "I know that the affairs of Great Britain require the most vigorous measures; but then the courage of a handful of brave men should be exerted only where there is some hope of a favourable issue." The only prospect of attempting the place with success, was by landing a body of troops by night below the town, and possessing themselves of the ground at the back of the city. This attempt, however, appeared peculiarly discouraging. The stream was rapid, the shore shelving, the bank above lined with sentinels: the landing-place so narrow as to be easily missed in the dark; and the steepness of the ground such as hardly to be surmounted even in the day time. All these difficulties were, however, overcome by the conduct of the general and the bravery of the men. The precipices were ascended, and the enemy that defended the narrow pass was dislodged. Montcalm, the French commander, being informed that the English had gained the heights, hitherto deemed inaccessible, resolved to hazard a battle. The onset was made with great fury: the French general was killed

early in the action, and the second in command shared his fate. General Wolfe, who stood in front of the lines in the hottest part of the engagement, had been aimed at by the enemy's marksmen, and received a shot in his wrist: but wrapping his handkerchief round his hand, he continued giving his orders without the least emotion, and advanced at the head of his grenadiers with their bayonets fixed: but a second ball more fatal pierced his breast, so that, unable to proceed, he leaned on the shoulder of a soldier that was next him. Struggling in the agonies; of death, and just expiring, he heard a voice cry, "They run!" Upon which he seemed for a moment to revive, and asked who ran; "The French!" was the answer: when, expressing his wonder that they ran so soon, he sunk on the soldier's breast, and his last words were, "I die happy." The surrender of Quebec was the consequence of this victory; the whole of Canada soon followed, and has continued in the possession of the English ever since. The island of Guadaloupe was reduced about the same time by Commodore More and General Hopson.

In Germany, affairs at the commencement of the war wore an unfavourable aspect. The Hanoverians, commanded by the Duke of Cumberland, were greatly outnumbered by the French, who at last compelled him to sign the capitulation of Closterseven, by which all the army stipulated to lay down their arms and disperse, and Hanover was obliged to submit quietly to the enemy. But their oppressions were so great, that the army rose to vindicate the freedom of their country, and Ferdinand, Prince of Brunswick, put himself at their head. As soon as this was known in England, large supplies were granted to the King of Prussia; and the Hanoverians, with a small body of British troops under the Duke of Marlborough, joined Prince Ferdinand. After some inconsiderable success the duke died, and the command of the British forces devolved on Lord George Sackville; but a misunderstanding arose between him and Prince Ferdinand, the unfortunate consequences of which appeared at the battle of Minden, fought shortly after. Lord George pretended that he did not understand the orders of the prince, which were contradictory, and of consequence, could not obey them. The

allies, however, gained the victory which, but for the British general, would have been a decisive one. Lord George was soon after recalled, tried by a court-martial, and declared incapable of serving in any military command. The British were now reinforced by a body of 30,000 men, and sanguine hopes of conquest were expressed. These hopes, however, were not realized: the allies were defeated at Corbach; and although they retrieved their honour at Exdorf, and gained a victory at Warburg and Ziernberg, they were again beaten at Campen, after which both sides retired to winter quarters.

The efforts of England in every part of the globe at this time were amazing, and the expense of her operations greater than had ever been disbursed by any nation before. The King of Prussia received a subsidy; a large body of English forces commanded the extensive peninsula in India, while an army of 20,000 men secured the conquests in North America; 30,000 were employed in Germany, and several bodies distributed in numerous garrisons, in various parts of the world. But all this was nothing to the force maintained at sea, which commanded wherever it went, and had totally annihilated the French power on that element. The courage and conduct of the English admirals surpassed whatever had been achieved in history; neither superior force, nor the terrors of the tempest, could intimidate them. Admiral Hawke gained a complete victory over the French fleet off the coast of Bretagne, in Quiberon Bay, in the midst of a violent storm, during the darkness of the night, and, what a seaman fears more, upon a rocky shore.

On the 25th of October, 1760, died George II. He had risen at his usual hour, and observed to his attendants, that as the weather was fine, he would take a walk in the gardens of Kensington Palace, where he then resided. In a few minutes after his return he was heard to fall upon the floor. His attendants ran to his assistance, and lifted him into bed, when he desired, with a faint voice, that the Princess Amelia might be sent for; but before she could reach his apartment he expired, in the seventy-seventh year of his age, and the thirty-third of his reign.

1760.—GEORGE III., REIGNED 59 YEARS, 3 MONTHS.

George III. succeeded his grandfather George II., and immediately assembled a Parliament. In his speech he spoke with much enthusiasm of his having been born and educated a Briton, and of his determination to prosecute the war with vigour. By this time, however, the people were weary of conquests. especially with those in Germany, which, without any solid advantage, were a great expense to the nation. In 1761, proposals of peace were made between the belligerent powers; but the French only wished to gain time; and Mr. Pitt, who had conducted the war with ability, and a spirit never excelled, if equalled, had, with his usual sagacity, dived into the designs of the enemy, and discovered a private treaty which had been entered into between France and Spain, called the family compact: he therefore proposed in council an immediate declaration of war against Spain. Foiled in his views, he declared he could no longer be of use in the cabinet, and the next day resigned his employ of secretary of state, and was created Earl of Chatham. The new administration were soon, however, obliged to adopt the suggestion of Mr. Pitt, and war was declared against Spain; but the opportunity of striking a sudden blow was lost.

As Portugal had long been in alliance with Great Britain, the French and Spaniards sent the most haughty memorials, commanding Joseph, the Portuguese monarch, to accede to the confederacy. Joseph rejected their proposals, and the Spaniards with three different armies attempted to penetrate to Lisbon. Their first body proceeded as far as the Douro, but was there stopped by the peasantry, headed by some English officers, who seized a difficult pass, and drove the enemy back to Monte Corvo. The second and third were equally unsuccessful, and were obliged to fall back to the frontiers of Spain.

No less propitious were the British arms in the East and West Indies. From the French were taken the islands of Martinique, St. Lucia, St. Vincent, and Granada: from the Spaniards the strong fortress of the Havannah, in the isle of Cuba. Nine of the enemy's

ships of war were captured, with four frigates; three of their capital vessels were sunk in the harbour, and two on the stocks destroyed. In money and valuable merchandize the plunder amounted to £3,000,000. To this may be added the capture of the Spanish register ship, in value a million sterling. In the East-Indies, Manilla was taken, and with it fourteen considerable islands fell into our hands, besides a rich galleon worth upwards of £500,000. By the acquisition of Manilla, joined to our former successes, we secured all the avenues of the Spanish trade, and interrupted all communication between the ports of their vast but disjointed empire. The conquest of the Havannah had cut off, in a great measure, the intercourse of their wealthy continental colonies with Europe: the reduction of the Philippines excluded them from Asia; and the plunder taken was more than sufficient to indemnify the charges of the expedition: a circumstance not very common in modern wars.

All this time the war in Germany had continued with unabated violence. The allies, under Prince Ferdinand, had given the highest proofs of valour, but no decisive advantage had been obtained. It was, however, no longer the interest of Britain to continue the contest. There had indeed seldom been a period so glorious to this island. In the course of the war an immense tract of land had been conquered. The American territory approached the borders of Asia, and came near the frontiers of the Russian and Chinese dominions. She had conquered twenty-five islands, all distinguishable for their riches and magnitude, or the importance of their situation. By sea and land she had gained twelve battles, reduced nine fortified cities, and nearly forty castles and forts; had taken or destroyed a hundred ships of war, and acquired at least ten millions of plunder. After such unexampled and widely extended conquests, the French and Spaniards became sincerely desirous of the termination of a war so unpropitious to them; and peace was at length concluded at Paris, February 10, 1763. Great Britain, by this treaty, received Florida in exchange for the Havannah; she retained Canada, Cape Breton, Tobago, Dominica, St. Vincent, the Granadas, and Senegal, on the coast of Africa, but restored

all her other conquests. A peace was soon after concluded between the Empress Queen of Hungary and his Prussian Majesty; and thus the general tranquillity of Europe was happily re-established. At the conclusion of this war the national debt amounted to about 148 millions.

The most momentous event to this country during the year 1765, was the passing of the American Stamp Act. This first kindled the sparks of that conflagration, which afterwards involved a great part of Europe, as well as America, in its destructive spread; and, although a remote, was certainly a principal cause of the French Revolution.

As this war is a most important event in the annals of Great Britain, no circumstance, however trivial, that serves to mark the progress of the growing animosity between the mother country and her colonies, ought to be passed over in silence. For this reason we shall observe, that an Act of Parliament had been lately made, enjoining the colonies to furnish his majesty's troops with necessaries in their quarters. This act the colony of New York refused to obey; and another act was therefore passed, restraining the assembly of that province from making any laws until they had complied with the former. At this the Americans expressed their indignation, and passed several resolutions against the importation of European, by which they no doubt meant British, commodities. Nor were the people in England much better satisfied with the posture of affairs. The vast sums owing to British merchants by the Americans amounted to several millions. Their refusal to pay these until the obnoxious laws should be repealed, greatly distressed the trading part of the country. Administration was therefore under the necessity of either immediately enforcing the Stamp Act by the sword, or of procuring its instant repeal. Pacific measures prevailed; the act was repealed; but at the same time another was made, declaring the right of Parliament not only to tax the colonies, but to bind them in all cases whatsoever.

The repeal of the Stamp Act occasioned universal joy, both in England and America; though, as the opposite party denied the right of Parliament to tax them, matters were still as far from any real accommodation as ever. This ill-humour of the Americans was soon

after augmented by the duties laid on tea, glass, &c. imported into their country. The French and Spaniards, taking advantage of these dissensions, shewed an inclination to come to a rupture, and were believed secretly to have fomented the spirit of rebellion which now spread through the colonies.

The great subject of dispute between the mother country and her American colonies, was the right of taxation. The colonies resisted this right, and seemed determined to encounter every danger, rather than submit to any taxes imposed without their own consent. In order to try their temper, and see whether they would put their threats in execution, some tea was sent out to America with the new duties annexed. This was not even permitted to be landed, but sent back to England with the utmost contempt and indignation. At Boston it met with a still worse reception; it was taken out of the ships by the populace, and thrown into the sea. To punish the New Englanders for this violence, two bills were passed: one for shutting up the port of Boston; and the other for taking the executive power out of the hands of the people, and vesting it in the crown.

These acts of severity were levelled in appearance only at the town of Boston; but most of the colonies took the alarm. They thought they saw, in the fall of that town, the punishment that might soon be inflicted on themselves; they, therefore, resolved to make common cause with them, and accordingly all the colonies, Nova-Scotia and Georgia excepted, sent delegates to a General Assembly, which met at Philadelphia, and assuming the name of Congress, presented a bold and spirited address to his majesty for a redress of grievances. (A. D. 1774.) Georgia, the following year, acceded to the union, and thus completed the number of the thirteen provinces which soon after revolted from the mother country, and ultimately rendered themselves sovereign and independent states. The fire, which had long been gaining ground, now broke out into an open flame. General Gage, governor of Massachusetts Bay, hearing that the provinces had collected a quantity of military stores at a place called Concord, sent out a detachment to destroy them. This detachment met a company of militia at Lexington, who from behind the walls

commenced a fire upon them; the soldiers immediately returned the fire: eight of the militia-men were killed, several wounded, and the stores were then destroyed without further interruption: but on their return they were suddenly attacked by a very superior number of the provincials, and though they made good their retreat to Boston, they lost upwards of 200 men in killed, wounded, and prisoners.

The news of this engagement was no sooner carried to the different parts of the country, than the whole province was at once in arms, and Boston was invested by a body of militia amounting to 20,000 men. The Congress also passed a resolution, declaring that the compact between the crown and Massachusetts Bay was dissolved; and the more effectually to mark their contempt for the British Government, they erected a post-office, at the head of which they placed Dr. Franklin, who had been disgracefully removed from that situation in England; and upon General Gage's publishing a proclamation, offering a pardon to all who should lay down their arms and return to their duty, excepting Messrs. Hancock and Adams, they immediately chose Mr. Hancock president of the Congress. In the meantime some skirmishes happened in the islands lying off Boston, in which the Americans had generally the advantage; but nothing decisive took place till the 17th of June, 1775, when the battle of Bunker's Hill was fought. Bunker's Hill is an eminence situated in the neighbourhood of Boston, upon a narrow neck of land. Upon this hill the provincials threw up, in one of the short nights of that season, a strong redoubt, considerable intrenchments, and a breastwork almost cannon-proof. In order to dislodge them from this post, which might have given much annoyance, a detachment of 2,000 men was sent out, under the command of Generals Home and Pigot. The attack began with a heavy cannonade, which, owing to the breastwork thrown up, did not much execution, and was borne by the provincials with the steadiness of the veteran troops; they did not return a shot till the king's forces had advanced almost to the works, when they began, and kept up for some time such a dreadful and continued fire, that many of our bravest men and officers were killed, and the rest

thrown into confusion. The troops, however, instantly rallied, and returning to the charge with fixed bayonet and irresistible fury, forced the works in every quarter, and compelled the provincials to abandon the post and retire to the continent. This, however, was a dear-bought advantage; almost half the detachment were killed or wounded, and the number of officers who fell, compared to that of the private men, was greatly beyond the usual proportion; this was owing to the training by the Americans of a certain description of soldiers called riflemen who had guns of a peculiar make, and excelled all others in taking a sure and steady aim.

The spirit displayed by the New Englanders on this occasion encouraged the Congress to proceed with greater alacrity in their military preparations. They had some time before given orders for raising and paying an army, and they now published a declaration of the motives that compelled them to take up arms, and their determined resolution not to lay them down till all their grievances were redressed. They likewise appointed Mr. Washington, one of the delegates for Virginia, to be commander-in-chief of all the American forces.

But to make it appear that they had formed no design of separating themselves from the mother country, they presented an address to the inhabitants of Great Britain, another to the people of Ireland, and a petition to the king, in which they disclaimed all thoughts of independence, and declared that they wished for nothing more than a reconciliation on just and reasonable terms; and, in the opinion of many, such terms might have been granted them at this time as would have at once gratified their ambition, without hurting the honour or the interest of Great Britain. But the fact is, that during the whole of this unhappy quarrel, our ministers seemed to entertain too mean an opinion of the spirit or resources of the Americans. Indeed, so strong was the delusion, that when Mr. Penn, who had brought over the last petition from the Americans, was examined by the House of Lords, and declared that if the petition were rejected, they would in all probability enter into alliances with foreign powers, no regard was paid to his information; and as to the petition, he was told by the ministry that no answer would be

returned to it. It is easy to imagine what an impression such a mode of treatment must have upon the minds of the Americans, elated with the fame they had acquired in the battle of Bunker's Hill. Not satisfied with acting merely on the defensive, they now determined to make an effort to reduce Quebec, before the fleets and armies, which they were well assured would sail from England, should arrive; the attempt had already been facilitated by the taking of Crown Point and Ticonderago by surprise, which gave them an entrance into Canada; and they now despatched 3,000 men, under Generals Montgomery and Schuyler, to attack that province.

They were opposed by General Carleton, a man of great experience and activity, who, with a very few troops, had been able to keep the disaffected in awe, and had now augmented his army by a considerable body of Indians.

The provincials were at first successful; they reduced the forts of Chamblee and St. John; they captured the whole of the British shipping between Montreal and Quebec, and took the town of Montreal itself. No further obstacles remained in the way of the Americans towards the capital than what arose from the nature of the country, and these indeed were considerable. Nothing, however, could damp their ardour; notwithstanding it was the month of November, Colonel Arnold formed the design of penetrating through the woods, morasses, and the most frightful solitudes, from New England to Canada, by a nearer way than that by which Montgomery had chosen; and this he accomplished, to the astonishment of all who saw or heard of the attempt. The consternation, however, into which the town of Quebec was thrown, proved rather detrimental to the Americans than otherwise, as it redoubled the vigilance, and united all parties, who before were contending violently against each other. Without artillery, and in want of provisions, Arnold was obliged to content himself with merely blockading the place. The arrival of Montgomery did not much mend his situation; their united forces were too insignificant to attempt the reduction of a place so strongly fortified. No other resource was left but an attempt to

take it by surprise. This was resorted to; but Montgomery was killed, Arnold had his leg shattered, and the enterprise was abandoned, after an immense slaughter of their troops; so that, after the engagement, no more than 810 effective men could be mustered. Arnold did not, however, immediately abandon the province; he removed about three miles from the city, and, finding the Indians friendly, he was enabled to endure all the hardships of a winter campaign in that most severe climate; but upon the arrival of a body of troops from England, he was finally obliged to evacuate the province.

In the meantime, the army at Boston was reduced to a miserable condition. General Howe, who had succeeded General Gage in the command, though an officer of great spirit, fruitful in expedients and known military skill, found himself totally unequal to the difficulties of his situation. He was effectually cut off from all communication with the continent of America, whence he could not expect the least supply of provisions. The store-ships from England arrived slowly and some of them were captured by the enemy; so that the army, as well as the inhabitants of Boston, were in danger of perishing by famine. To add to their distress, the Americans had erected strong batteries upon the adjacent hills, whence, in the spring, they began to play upon the town with incredible fury. For fourteen days this terrible attack continued, without intermission; so that, finding the place no longer tenable, the army was obliged to evacuate it, taking with them such of the inhabitants as chose to follow their fortunes.

From Boston they sailed to Halifax, leaving behind them immense stores of ammunition, cannon, &c., together with a great quantity of woollen and linen goods, of which the Americans stood much in need. General Washington immediately took possession of the town, which he fortified in such a manner as to render it almost impregnable.

An expedition undertaken against Charlestown, about the same time, shewed the ministry to be as little acquainted with the creeks and harbours on the American coast, as they soon after appeared to be with the interior geography of the country. The fleet for this

enterprise was commanded by Sir Peter Parker, and the land forces by Generals Clinton and Cornwallis. The troops were disembarked upon a place called Long Island, separated from another, called Sullivan's Island, only by a strait, which was said to be no more than eighteen inches deep at low water. Upon this vague report the expedition was planned, and the result was such as might have been expected. The enemy had erected some strong batteries upon Sullivan's Island, in order to obstruct the passage of ships to the town. This post the admiral attacked with great gallantry; but when the troops attempted to pass from one island to the other, they found the strait, instead of eighteen inches, not less than seven feet deep. The consequence was, that after losing some of his bravest men, and even a ship of war, which he was obliged to burn in order to prevent her falling into the enemy's hands, the admiral was obliged to give up the enterprise as altogether impracticable.

The Americans now began to think that matters had been carried too far between them and the mother country, ever to admit of any sincere or lasting reconciliation. They likewise reflected, that while they continued to acknowledge themselves subjects of the British empire, they were naturally regarded by the rest of the world as rebels fighting against their lawful sovereign. They therefore published, on the 4th of July, 1776, their famous declaration of independence, by which they disclaimed all allegiance to the crown of Great Britain, and erected themselves into free and sovereign states.

General Howe did not long remain inactive at Halifax. Setting sail for New York, and being there joined by his brother, Lord Howe, with a large fleet and considerable reinforcements, he drove the enemy, first from Long Island, then from the city of New York, and compelled them to abandon King's Bridge, at the extremity of New York Island, where they had thrown up very strong works. Not being able, however, to force Washington to a general engagement, he returned to New York, where he established his head quarters.

Various other successes attended the British arms. The American flotilla, on Lake Champlain, was nearly

destroyed by General Carleton, and Sir Henry Clinton made himself master of Rhode Island without the loss of a man. This conquest was of great importance, as it obliged the American fleet to sail as far as possible up the Providence River, and thus remain entirely useless. The same ill success attended the Americans in other parts: General Burgoyne succeeded, after incredible exertions, in constructing a fleet, with which he pursued General Arnold, who, after his expulsion from Canada, had crossed Lake Champlain, and taken up his quarters at Crown Point. Here he was attacked by the British, defeated, and obliged to burn his ships, a few only escaping to Lake George.

The affairs of the Americans seemed now everywhere to decline, and those who had been the most sanguine in the cause began to waver. The time, also, for which the soldiers had enlisted was expired, and the misfortunes of the preceding campaign had so discouraged them, that few were willing to engage during the continuance of a war, the event of which seemed so doubtful. An exploit, however, of General Washington, at this time, raised the drooping spirits of the Americans. Perceiving the imminent danger to which Philadelphia was exposed, he resolved to make some attempts upon the Hessians, who lay nearest the city; and for that purpose, on the night of the 24th December, he silently crossed the Delaware, and attacking the Hessians, who had not perceived his approach, killed their colonel, seized their artillery, and took 1,000 prisoners. Emboldened by his success, he made an attempt on a division of the British forces, consisting of three regiments, under Colonel Mawhood. These troops were surprised on their march; but although they were separately surrounded by a force vastly superior, they charged the enemy so resolutely with their bayonets, that they effected their retreat.

France and Spain had hitherto professed to observe a strict neutrality, with regard to Great Britain and her American colonies. A step which they now took was sufficient to render their sincerity suspected. They opened their ports to the American privateers, and suffered them publicly to dispose of the prizes they had taken from the British merchants. They likewise pri-

vately supplied the Americans with artillery and military stores; and such numbers of French officers and engineers went over to the Americans, as added greatly to the skill and strength of their armies. At the same time both these powers continued to increase their marine with such unceasing activity, that it was plainly foreseen by every thinking person that they would soon throw off the mask, and openly declare in favour of the Americans; the ministry alone treated these ideas as the visionary conceits of wrong-headed politicians.

In the month of June, 1777, General Howe opened the campaign with an attempt to bring General Washington to a general engagement in the northern colonies; finding that impossible, he resolved to make an attempt on the southern ones. He accordingly embarked his army on board 200 transports, and set sail for Philadelphia; but when he arrived at the mouth of the Delaware, he found it so filled with chevaux-de-frize as rendered it absolutely impassable. He therefore landed his troops at Elkferry, and at Brandywine river found himself opposed by General Washington, who, contrary to his usual caution, resolved to hazard a battle for the protection of Philadelphia. The conflict was obstinately contested through the whole of the day, when the enemy were at last obliged to yield to the superior discipline of the English troops, who entered Philadelphia immediately after.

General Burgoyne, on his side, opened the campaign with about 10,000 men, by the siege of Ticonderago. The place was strong, and garrisoned by 6,000 men. They had, however, omitted to fortify a rugged eminence called Sugar-hill, which effectually commanded the works, vainly imagining that the difficulty of the ascent would deter the British from attempting it. A road was, however, soon made to its very top, which so much disheartened the Americans, that they abandoned the fort entirely, and in their retreat lost 200 boats, 130 pieces of cannon, with all their provisions and baggage. After experiencing various losses in their retreat, they arrived at Saratoga, where they were strongly reinforced by troops from all quarters, and a considerable train of artillery under General Arnold, who now took the command. Here ended the success of the

British. The roads, which had been made with incredible labour, were destroyed by the rains and the enemy, so that the army began to be greatly distressed for want of provisions, which caused the desertion of the Indian auxiliaries in great bodies. Surrounded by superior numbers, without being able to convey any intelligence of their situation, or send out their foraging parties, they were attacked by the Americans, and after defeating them in two desperate engagements, were obliged to submit to a capitulation, by which it was agreed that they should be allowed to embark for Great Britain, upon condition of not serving again in America during the war.

The news of this defeat, whilst it filled England with shame and despair, was the signal for France to throw off the mask and openly declare in favour of the Americans, whom they acknowledged as sovereign and independent states. As this amounted to a declaration of hostilities, both parties prepared for war. On the 27th of July, the fleets of the two powers came in sight of each other, when a running fight commenced, the English commanded by Keppel and Palliser, the French by D'Orvillers. The two English admirals unfortunately disagreed: Keppel was accused of not having done his duty, Palliser for disobedience of orders as second in command: Keppel was honourably acquitted, Palliser partly condemned.

A bold adventurer of the name of Paul Jones, this year kept the western coast of the island in constant alarm. He landed at Whitehaven, where he burnt a ship in the harbour, and even attempted to set fire to the town. He afterwards landed in Scotland, and plundered the house of the Earl of Selkirk. He fought a bloody battle with Captain Pearson, of the Serapis, whom he compelled to strike. His own ship was so shattered in the engagement, that he had no sooner quitted her in order to take possession of his prize, than she went to the bottom. Captain Farmer, of the Quebec, fought a no less desperate battle with a French ship of very superior force, till his ship accidentally taking fire, he was blown into the air with most of his crew.

The chief scene of action between the English and French was the West-Indies, where we reduced St.

Lucia, but lost St. Vincent, Dominica, and Granada. In America, the war languished; and except the reduction of Georgia by Commodore Parker and Colonel Campbell, and an attempt to recover it by the French Admiral D'Estaing, in which they were bravely repulsed by Major General Prevost, nothing of importance occurred this year.

As the united arms of America were upon the whole unsuccessful, the independence of the Americans still seemed precarious; but their courage was once more renewed by the accession of Spain to the confederacy, in September, 1779.

The difficulties and danger to which England was now reduced were undoubtedly great; but the spirit and magnanimity displayed on this occasion did the highest honour to the nation, and fully justified the opinion generally entertained of its opulence and valour. All seemed actuated by a noble zeal in the cause of their country: large sums were subscribed, companies raised, and regiments formed with such alacrity, as quickly banished any apprehensions that might be entertained of an invasion.

The French, who thought themselves secure of victory by the accession of Spain, made an attempt on Jersey and Guernsey, but with so little success that not a man could disembark; and in a second attempt their squadron was driven ashore, and partly burnt, by a fleet under Sir James Wallace. Thus disappointed, they formed the project of invading Great Britain. A junction was formed between the French and Spanish fleets, which now amounted to sixty sail of the line, besides a vast number of frigates and armed vessels. All this formidable apparatus, however, ended in nothing but the capture of a single ship. They had passed the British fleet under Sir Charles Hardy, in the mouth of the Channel, without observing him, and sailing within sight of Plymouth, they took the Ardent of sixty-four guns; after which they returned without making any attempt to land. The British admiral endeavoured to entice them up the Channel in pursuit of him, but this they did not think proper to attempt; indeed, their pusillanimity was such, as to make the French themselves ashamed of it. The Spaniards had

begun their military operations by the siege of Gibraltar, but with very little success; and the close of the year 1779, and beginning of 1780, were attended with considerable advantages to Britain. In the West Indies Sir Hyde Parker and Admiral Rowley took several ships of war, and a number of merchantmen. Sir G. B. Rodney, who had been intrusted with a fleet for the relief of Gibraltar, fell in with twenty-two sail of Spanish ships, and captured the whole in a few hours, and some days after, he engaged the Spanish fleet of eleven sail of the line, and took four of their largest ships; two others were driven on shore, one of which was afterwards got off; the other was lost, and one was blown up during the action.

Having supplied the garrison of Gibraltar with provisions, &c., he proceeded to the West Indies, where he engaged a French fleet of superior force, under the Count de Guichen, and obliged it to retire to Guadaloupe; a second and a third engagement ensued, but produced no decisive result.

In June, the French were joined by a Spanish squadron, and their united fleets amounted to thirty-six sail of the line: notwithstanding their vast superiority of force, they did not attempt to attack the British fleet, nor any of the islands.

In July, a very important capture was made by the Spaniards, of five East-Indiamen, and fifty sail of merchantmen that had the misfortune to fall in with their fleet. This, however, was fully compensated by the taking of fort Omoa from the Spaniards, in which more than 3,000,000 of dollars were gained by the victors and among other valuable commodities, twenty-five quintals of quicksilver, without which the Spaniards could not extract the precious metals from their mines.

As if Great Britain had not foes enough to oppose, the Dutch, who had been so often assisted by her, joined her enemies; and at the same time a most formidable confederacy, under the title of the "armed neutrality," was formed against her, at the head of which was Catharine II. of Russia, who induced the kings of Sweden and Denmark also to accede to their plans, which were evidently to crush the power of Great Britain entirely.

But with almost all the powers of Europe arrayed against her, the nation was not to be dismayed; and as the Dutch had acted with great perfidy and ingratitude, it was determined to take signal vengeance on them. Lord North, in his communication to Parliament on the subject, after lamenting the necessity of war with Holland, and acknowledging the powerful confederacy against Great Britain, added, that when he considered the noble stand already made against the enemies of the country, and the spirited resources of the nation, he was fully convinced that it was equal to the contest.

To return to the events of the war. In February, 1781, the Dutch island of St. Eustatia surrendered to Admiral Rodney and General Vaughan, and in August the Dutch fleet fell in with that under Admiral Parker; a bloody engagement ensued, though little advantage was gained on either side; the Dutch bore away for the Texel, and the English were too disabled to follow them.

In the East-Indies, the united powers of the French under General Lally, and the Indians under the famous Hyder Ali and his son Tippoo Sahib, were beaten in repeated engagements, and the Dutch settlements suffered very severely.

In the West-Indies, owing to the vast superiority of the combined fleets of France and Spain, nothing of consequence could be achieved. An indecisive action took place between Admiral Hood and the Count de Grasse, the result of which was at least honourable to the British, the French having a superiority of six ships of the line.

On the continent, Charlestown had been reduced by Sir Henry Clinton, and Gates and Arbuthnot were defeated by Lord Cornwallis, who with a much inferior force gained a very signal victory. Not long after, means were found to detach General Arnold, who had engaged so ardently in the cause of America, and had exhibited so much bravery in the support of it, from the interest of the Congress. Major Andre, a principal agent in this affair, was seized in disguise, and executed as a spy.

These successes were, however, more than counter-

balanced by the unfortunate result of the expedition of Lord Cornwallis, who, having overrun Carolina, had entered Virginia, where, notwithstanding several partial victories, he found himself in a very critical situation. He had expected considerable reinforcements from Sir Henry Clinton, who was prevented from sending them by his fears respecting New York, against which the Americans made a show of a very formidable attack. But Washington, who in his manœuvres completely outgeneraled Sir Henry in this affair, suddenly crossed the Delaware, and marched to attack Lord Cornwallis; a large body of French troops assisted in this enterprise, and Washington took measures to surround the British. This he did so completely, that Lord Cornwallis, finding that neither skill nor courage could avail, was obliged to surrender his whole army prisoners of war. A considerable number of cannon, and a large quantity of ammunition, fell into the hands of the Americans on this occasion.

As no rational expectation of the subjugation of the colonies now appeared, the military operations that succeeded in America were of little consequence. The disaster of Cornwallis had produced a sincere desire of being at peace with the Americans, but that could not be accomplished without making peace with France also, whose pretensions were too much heightened by success. Minorca had fallen into the hands of the Spaniards; the islands of Nevis and St. Christopher had surrendered to De Grasse, the French admiral. But an end to their exploits was now approaching: De Grasse, after a distant engagement, determined to close with his formidable antagonist, Rodney. This memorable action took place on the 12th of April, 1782, off the island of Dominica. The British fleet consisted of thirty-seven sail of the line, the French of thirty-four. The battle began at seven in the morning, and continued till the same hour at night. Rodney was on board the Formidable, of ninety guns, and De Grasse in the Ville de Paris, of 110. The van was led by Sir Samuel Hood, and the rear by Admiral Drake, who greatly distinguished themselves in this important victory; but the decisive turn on this memorable day was given by a bold manœuvre of Rodney, who broke the French

line, and threw them into disorder. The first French ship that struck was the Cæsar, whose captain fought nobly, and was killed in the action; unfortunately, after she was taken she caught fire accidentally, and blew up, with 200 French and ten English seamen on board; another was sunk during the action; and the Ville de Paris, and two seventy-fours, were taken. On board their fleet were 5,500 soldiers, so that the havoc among these was incredibly great, as well as among the seamen.

On the 19th, Sir Samuel Hood, who had been detached after the battle with a squadron in pursuit, captured two French sixty-fours with the Aimable of thirty-two, and the Cerès of eighteen guns; and about the same time Admiral Barrington took the Pegase of seventy-four and a sixty-four, with ten sail of vessels under convoy, off Ushant.

The greatest disaster which befel the Spaniards, was their failure before Gibraltar, in besieging which they had employed upwards of 100,000 men, an incredible number of cannon, mortars, and howitzers, together with a fleet of fifty sail of the line, and ten floating batteries, which they boasted were proof against fire or water. So assured were they of success, that the Count D'Artois, the Duke de Bourbon, and military men from all parts of Europe, went to be witnesses of what passed at this celebrated siege, which was now compared to the most famous in history.

On the 13th of September the floating batteries proceeded to take their station in line, about 1,000 yards from the shore, and began a heavy cannonade, in which they were seconded by all the guns and mortars in their lines and approaches. This was answered by hot and cold shot from all the batteries of the fort. A terrible fire was kept up on both sides without intermission till noon, when that of the Spaniards began to slacken, and the fire of the garrison to obtain a superiority. Soon after their floating batteries were observed to be on fire, and at midnight they were completely in flames. On their making signals of distress, a multitude of launches, boats, &c. went to their assistance. Captain Curtis, who lay ready with his gun-boats, advanced upon them at two in the morning, forming a line on their flank. At this unexpected attack, they were so astonished that

they fled to their boats, totally abandoning their floating batteries, and all that were in them, to perish in the flames. This would undoubtedly have been their fate, had not Captain Curtis, at the imminent risk of his own life and that of his men, extricated many from the fire.

This terrible catastrophe, which happened within sight of the fleets of France and Spain, convinced the Spaniards that Gibraltar could not be taken by force, and the relief which Lord Howe introduced into the garrison in sight of the combined fleet, which did not venture to attack him, proved so decisive, that although the blockade continued till the preliminaries were signed, no further attack was made.

Thus all parties were taught that it was high time to put an end to the contest. The affair of Cornwallis made the reduction of the American colonies a very protracted affair, if at all possible. The defeat of De Grasse had rendered the conquest of the British possessions in the West-Indies impracticable to the French, and the final repulse before Gibraltar put an end to that favourite enterprise, in which the whole strength of Spain had been employed; while the engagement with the Dutch by Admiral Parker convinced them that nothing could be gained by a naval contest with Great Britain. A negotiation was accordingly opened at Paris, which was protracted by the insidious conduct of the French ministry with regard to concessions in America. But the Congress penetrating into the designs of France, which were to keep them dependant upon her, made a provisional treaty with Britain.

Baffled in this attempt, France urged Spain to insist upon the cession of Gibraltar; which Britain was inflexibly bent on keeping, and her European enemies, fearing to encounter her when disengaged from the Americans, gave up the point. On the 20th of January, 1783, preliminaries were signed between Great Britain, France, and Spain, in which Holland soon after joined, and a definitive treaty was concluded.

Thus an end was put to the most dangerous war in which Great Britain had been hitherto engaged; and in which, notwithstanding the powerful combination against her, she still maintained a state of superiority over all her enemies. Though for a number of years

she had been deprived of most of her colonies, though attacked at the same time by three of the greatest among the continental powers of Europe, and looked upon with an invidious eye by all the rest, the wounds she inflicted on her enemies greatly exceeded those she had received. Their trade by sea was almost ruined, and on comparing the loss of ships of war on both sides, the balance in favour of Britain was twenty-eight ships of the line and thirty-seven frigates, carrying in all about 2,000 guns.

Nothing of a military nature occurred till the August of 1787, when dissensions in Holland arose to such a height, as to occasion the interference of Prussia in favour of the stadtholder, and of France in favour of the insurgents, whom she secretly abetted. The British court in consequence ordered an augmentation of forces; but on the defeat of the malcontents in Holland, the armaments of France and Britain were disbanded by mutual consent.

In the spring of 1790, England was once more on the eve of a war with Spain, owing to a commercial speculation set on foot by a company of merchants, whose object was to obtain from the north-west coast of America very valuable furs. Towards the middle of 1789 this trade had become very flourishing, and a colony was formed at Nootka Sound, as a factory for trade. This excited the jealousy of the Spaniards, who sent two ships of war under Admiral Martinez. Without giving the English the least reason to suspect the hostility of his design, he took the opportunity, while the traders were dispersed up the country, to seize on the English ships and take possession of the town, after which he sent the crews of two ships that entered the port in irons to Mexico.

The news of this outrage raised a great sensation in England; an armament was immediately voted, which by its magnitude, astonished all Europe: but Spain complied with our demands, and the blessings of peace were happily preserved to both countries.

In the East-Indies, Tippo Saib, excited by the court of France, made war upon our possessions, which continued for two years, when Lord Cornwallis, after defeating him in various encounters, invested Seringapa-

tam, his capital, and forced him to submit to very ignominious terms.

In the month of March, 1791, an armament was prepared to act against Russia, then at war with the Turks: upon mutual explanations the measure was given up, and the Chancellor of the Exchequer expressed his belief that Britain was long to enjoy the blessings of peace. But how short is all human foresight! At that very time the internal discontents of France were advancing to a catastrophe, by which all Europe was involved in war.

The principal causes of this horrid revolution were the general diffusion of immoral, irreligious, and blasphemous publications, from the pens of Voltaire, Rousseau, and other infidel writers; the oppression of the lower orders of the people; and the state of the finances, which had been long much embarrassed, but which, by the expensive war in support of the American rebellion, were now entirely ruined. The measures pursued to replenish the treasury led to public discussion and private intrigue, to which Louis XVI. at last fell a victim, and monarchy was abolished in France. (A. D. 1793.)

The principles avowed by the democrats, who now bore the sway in France, justly alarmed all the governments of Europe. The Emperor of Germany had already been attacked; but the ostensible grounds of quarrel on the part of Great Britain were chiefly two, —the decree by which encouragement was held out to the subjects of every state to rebel against their lawful government; and the opening of the Scheldt, which Great Britain had bound herself to the Dutch to prevent. M. Chauvelin, the French ambassador, was ordered to quit England, upon which the Convention declared war against the King of England and the Stadtholder of Holland. This was an artful phraseology, by which they wished to intimate a separate interest between prince and people.

A confederacy had been entered into by Prussia and Germany, to which Great Britain became a party. British troops, under the command of the Duke of York, joined the allied army, and the duke besieged and took Valenciennes; the united fleets of Great Britain and

Spain took Toulon, which was however abandoned shortly after.

On the 1st of June, 1794, the British fleet, under Earl Howe, gained a most splendid victory over the French fleet, off Ushant. The French had purchased immense quantities of grain and other stores, which Lord Howe sailed to intercept, and the French to protect; an engagement ensued, in which the enemy's line was broken, ten sail were taken and two sunk, but their convoy of provisions got safely into port. Another naval victory was gained by Lord Bridport, close in with Port L'Orient.

In 1796, a revolution took place in Holland; the Stadtholder fled to England, the government was vested in five directors, and the state became dependant on France.

1797.—As the Spaniards had also joined the French republic, Sir John Jervis was despatched against them, gained a complete victory over their fleet off Cape St. Vincent, and was in consequence created Earl St. Vincent. A victory over the Dutch was likewise gained by Admiral Duncan, off Camperdown, in which the Dutch admiral, De Winter, and the vice-admiral, were made prisoners, and ten sail of the line and two frigates were taken. For this action Duncan was raised to the peerage by the title of Viscount Camperdown. The French being now so occupied with their military operations scarcely made any efforts by sea, and consequently the English had few opportunities of adding to their laurels on that element. They took, however, Demerara from the Dutch, and reconquered the island of St. Lucia; and a Dutch squadron of seven sail of the line, which was sent to recapture the Cape of Good Hope, was obliged to surrender to Admiral Elphinstone.

In the middle of April of this year the uncommon occurrence of a mutiny in the British fleet took place at the Nore. For several days the mutineers had the complete command of the ships, and appointed two delegates from each, to present their list of grievances, and petition for an increase of pay. The government agreed to their demands; but this only appeared to increase their audacity, and spread the ferment; some ships from Lord Duncan's fleet came and joined them,

and the navigation of the Thames was completely stopped. The ministers were now determined to reduce them to obedience by force; they were declared in a state of rebellion; furnaces for heating red-hot shot were constructed on the banks, and all communication cut off between them and the shore. At length they quarrelled among each other; several ships left their mutinous comrades; the remainder followed, and surrendered their delegates. Parker, their chief, and some few others, suffered death; the rest received pardon, and soon wiped off their disgrace by the brilliant though bloody victory over the Dutch fleet.

In December, a French squadron of eighteen ships of the line and thirteen frigates, having on board 25,000 men, under General Hoche, sailed from Brest, to make a descent on Ireland, where they falsely supposed they should be joined by the greater part of that nation. At their outset several of their ships were lost, the remainder were separated in a violent gale of wind, and their admiral arrived at Bantry Bay, with only a small number of ships, in a very shattered state. After waiting some days for Hoche, who alone was intrusted with the despatches, the admiral returned to France, after losing a ship of the line and two frigates, which foundered at sea. One ship of the line was driven on shore, and a frigate captured by the English. The French were indeed baffled by the elements; but from the reception which the well-tried bravery and unshaken loyalty of the Irish were preparing for them, there can be little doubt that the elements were their best friends.

The invasion of England and Ireland being abandoned by the French, General Buonaparte, who had shewn great military skill in Italy against the Austrians, proposed a plan for seizing on the Turkish province of Egypt, with a view to invade and subvert the British empire in India.

In May, 1798, he set sail with thirteen ships of the line, seven frigates, and 200 transports. On the 9th of June this expedition appeared before Malta, which the grand master surrendered most disgracefully; one of the conditions was, that he should receive, during his life, 300,000 livres per annum.

Leaving a garrison at Malta, and being joined by

sixty transports with troops from Italy, Buonaparte sailed for Alexandria, which was taken by assault, and a great slaughter was made of the Arabs and Mamelukes who defended it. From Alexandria he marched to Rosetta, and then proceeding to Grand Cairo, encountered one of the chiefs of the Mamelukes, whose undisciplined army he almost annihilated, after which he entered Grand Cairo in triumph.

But Buonaparte was now to meet with an enemy very different from the flying Arabs. Admiral Nelson, who had been despatched in pursuit of the enemy, after sailing twice across the Mediterranean, at last found the French fleet at anchor in Aboukir Bay, in line of battle, close to a shoal, flanked by gun-boats, and a battery of mortars erected on an island in their van. The French admiral, who had no conception that the British would attempt the hazardous enterprise of running their ships between the shoal and his fleet, vainly deemed his position impregnable. But Nelson soon convinced him what British seamen could do, when led on by such a commander. After a battle, which began August 1st at sunset, and continued till daybreak of the 2nd, nine sail of the line were taken, one was burnt by her own commander, and a frigate was also burnt, to prevent her falling into the hands of the victors. The admiral's ship L'Orient blew up about midnight, with a tremendous explosion, and nearly the whole of her crew, of 1000 men, perished. Two French ships of the line and two frigates, which had fled, were afterwards captured.

No naval engagement in modern times ever produced such important consequences. It gave fresh courage to the powers of the Continent to renew the contest in the cause of order and good government. The King of Naples attacked the enemy in Italy. The Turks proclaimed war against them, and a new coalition was formed with Germany and Russia, which had hitherto remained neutral.

The French no longer ventured to send any large fleets to sea, but wherever their small fleets appeared, they were overpowered by the superior skill and courage of the British.

The French Directory had long endeavoured to foment rebellion in Ireland, by promising aid to the

disaffected party, who, by the oppressive measures of government, had increased in a formidable manner. A regular correspondence had been kept up between them; but, weary of fruitless expectation, the United Irishmen, as they were called, broke out into actual warfare. While the rebellion was at its height, the French did not appear; but after it was totally subdued, they attempted to elude the vigilance of the British, and to land in small parties. On the 22nd of August, General Humbert landed with about 900 men; but finding very few of the Irish, even of the meanest, join him, and that Lord Cornwallis was surrounding him, he surrendered himself prisoner with his army.

The Directory still endeavoured to create alarm and keep up the spirit of disaffection, by sending small squadrons with troops towards Ireland. In October, Sir John Borlase Warren took La Hoche, of 120 guns, and four frigates, with 3,000 men on board, and on the 20th another frigate was captured, bound to Ireland. The French, finding the sea completely occupied by the British, desisted at last from their enterprise.

In 1799, the Duke of York invaded Holland, for the purpose of re-establishing the Stadtholder. After taking the fort of the Helder, and the island of the Texel, Admiral Mitchel summoned the Dutch fleet, of eight sail of the line, seven smaller vessels, and four Indiamen, to surrender and hoist the Orange flag, which they did. Several partial engagements ensued, in which the duke, who had been joined by a party of Russians, was successful; but finding the winter set in, the French receiving great reinforcements, and a total want of co-operation on the part of the Dutch, a suspension of arms was agreed upon, the prisoners on each side were given up, and the British evacuated the country.

In the West Indies, the valuable Dutch colony of Surinam was reduced, and all the ships of war, together with the immense magazines belonging to their government, were given up by capitulation.

A. D. 1801.—In the East Indies, the arms of Great Britain were crowned with eminent success. Seringapatam was taken by assault by the army under General Harris, and Tippoo Saib found among the slain. Thus perished the most formidable enemy of Great

Britain in India. His dominions were divided among the British and their allies, and a legal descendant of the Sultaun, whom Hyder Ali, the father of Tippoo, had dispossessed of his throne.

Buonaparte, finding his army, by the defeat of the French fleet, entirely separated from France, did all in his power to gain a firm footing in Egypt. He professed himself a great admirer of Mahomet, and that he was come to restore the pristine grandeur of his followers. After various partial battles, in which he was uniformly successful, he commenced the siege of Acre, with 12,000 veteran troops. Here the hero of France was to meet with a disgraceful defeat from a handful of British sailors, under Sir Sidney Smith, who had previously taken a whole French flotilla, laden with heavy artillery and other articles for the siege. Under Sir Sidney's directions, Buonaparte was detained before this fortress sixty days, during which he was foiled in eleven different attempts to carry it by storm. One of these was made during a truce which he had requested to bury his dead; this, like the others, failed, and he was obliged to retreat, leaving eight of his generals, eighty-five officers, and half his army behind him. This defeat, which effectually stopped his career, will be considered as very important, when it is known that by his intrigues he had prevailed on the numerous tribes of dervises to join him after the reduction of the fortress.

Finding all his hopes frustrated in Egypt, Buonaparte secretly withdrew with General Berthier and a few others, and landed in safety in France, after narrowly escaping from an English ship that chased him into port. Having previously, it is supposed, had information that the people of France were weary of their Directory, and ripe for a change, he, with the assistance of his brother Lucien, seized the opportunity, and caused himself to be elected First Consul, under which title he obtained all the powers of an absolute monarch. After a pretended attempt to treat for peace with Great Britain, he succeeded in uniting Russia, Sweden, and Denmark, in an armed neutrality, hostile to the interests of England; while, at the same time, he commenced formidable preparations for a descent.

To break up this northern confederacy, which had for its professed object the affirmative of the famous question, "whether the navigation of the sea ought to be free, or subject to certain restrictions," a strong armament was fitted out, consisting of seventeen sail of the line, three frigates, and twenty bomb-ketches, under Sir Hyde Parker. On the 2nd of April, 1801, Lord Nelson, who had offered his services for the conduct of the attack, made the signal; and after one of the most tremendous conflicts ever known, the whole Danish line of seventeen sail were sunk, burnt, or taken. The carnage on board the Danish ships was dreadful. Three of our ships had in the meanwhile grounded, and lay exposed to a terrible fire from the shore. Mutual interest now seemed to require a cessation of hostilities, and Lord Nelson therefore wrote to the Crown Prince, and a cessation accordingly took place. In the midst of the conference which ensued, the death of the Emperor of Russia, who was at the head of the confederacy, was announced; and as his son and successor consented to abandon it, the inferior potentates followed his example.

The French now made preparations for attacking Portugal, the only remaining ally of Great Britain, and at the same time collected an immense force along the coast for the express purpose of invading England. The English government, far from being alarmed, sent Sir Ralph Abercrombie with 18,000 men to attack the French in Egypt, whose army amounted to 30,000 men. On the 2nd of March the British fleet arrived off Aboukir, but were unable for six days to effect a landing, during which interval they had the mortification to see the time employed by the French in manning the fort and erecting batteries. Under the direction of Captain Cochrane, attended by Sir Sidney Smith, the division ordered to land, consisting of 6,000 men, moved towards the shore. The boats had a considerable distance to row, and were exposed to the fire of fifteen pieces of artillery besides musketry; but the bravery and cool intrepidity of the British overcame every obstacle, and they succeeded in stationing their advanced posts about four miles beyond Aboukir. On the 25th took place the general action, in which, after prodigies of valour, the British were victorious, although

they lost their general, Sir Ralph Abercrombie, who was mortally wounded by a musket-ball in the moment of victory. Major-General Hutchinson, on whom the command devolved, advanced to Grand Cairo, which surrendered, and the French agreed to a capitulation, by which they entirely evacuated the country.

The war now became without an object, and a desire for the return of peace manifested itself between the belligerent powers. Mr. Pitt retired from office, and under the auspices of Mr. Addington, his successor, a negotiation was commenced; preliminaries were signed October 1st, and on the 27th of March, 1802, Lord Cornwallis concluded at Amiens, with the ministers of France, Spain, and the Batavian Republic, a definitive treaty of peace, which was proclaimed at London on the 29th of April. By its conditions England gave up all conquests made during the war, except the islands of Ceylon and Trinidad; Portugal gave up a part of Guiana to France; the Ionian republic was acknowledged; and Malta, which was in possession of the English, was to be restored to the Knights within a certain time, and on certain conditions.

This treaty was received with great joy by both French and English; but it was soon found to be nothing more than an armed truce; a peace with a revolutionary government, with an ambitious usurper, who could make a rupture whenever his spleen, caprice, or temporary advantage prompted a violation of the contract, and consequently a peace which could never be considered permanent.

Even before the signature of the definitive treaty the Chief Consul began his plans of ambition, by causing himself to be chosen president of the Cisalpine Republic, which thus greatly increased the power of France.

His Majesty's speech, at the opening of Parliament in November, alluded to these encroachments, and the augmentation of the army and navy was considered as a certain presage of the renewal of war.

At the end of this year a conspiracy against the government, at the head of which was a Colonel Despard, was discovered. He and six of his associates were executed according to their sentence.

In 1803, a correspondence between the English and

French governments had for some time been kept up relative to various subjects of complaint. On the part of France, the delay in the evacuation of Malta was the chief topic; on that of England, the conduct of France in destroying the independence of the Knights of Malta, and seizing the funds destined for their support. This and some other grounds of complaint were the causes of the renewal of a war, which in its progress ruined almost all Europe.

The First Consul, whose rage knew no bounds at having his ambitious schemes thwarted, wreaked his vengeance on all the English who, confiding in the faith of nations, had for business or pleasure entered the French territories, by arresting and detaining them and all their effects. At the commencement of the war a French army under Mortier invaded Hanover, of which they took possession. But the grand object of Buonaparte was the invasion of England, and for this purpose all the shipwrights and boat-builders were put in requisition, and an immense number were collected at Boulogne.

The English Government, although convinced of the futility of the attempt, did not neglect the means of defence, and the spirit of the people nobly seconded their views. Volunteers to the amount of 300,000 men completely equipped, everywhere appeared to defend their country; the navy was put on a formidable footing; and all the ports of Holland and France were closely blockaded.

In the West Indies, the islands of St. Lucia and Tobago were taken, in the month of June; and in September, the Dutch settlements of Demerara, Essequibo, and Berbice were captured.

In the East, Generals Lake and Wellesley greatly distinguished themselves in a war against several Mahratta chiefs aided by a French force. The Peishwah of Poonah, an ally of Great Britain, was re-established in his dominions, from which he had been expelled; and a complete victory was gained by General Wellesley, over an army six times the number of his own, with an immense train of artillery. General Lake also defeated an army near Delhi, commanded by a French officer, and reinstated the Mogul Emperor, who had been kept

prisoner by the enemy. These defeats completely humbled the Mahrattas, and peace was made, by which immense territorial possessions were annexed to our dominions, and the power of France entirely annihilated. On the 14th of February, 1804, the French Admiral Linois formed the design of capturing the whole East-India Company's ships of twenty-seven sail; but Captain Dance, who acted as Commodore, placing his ships in line of battle, without waiting to be attacked, bore down on the enemy, who declined the combat and fled.

Spain having joined France, Commodore Moore was sent to intercept the treasures which were on their way to Cadiz from America. On the 5th of October, four Spanish frigates were descried and overtaken; three of them were taken, with an immense booty of dollars and bullion; the fourth blew up with all her crew.

This year Buonaparte was constituted Emperor of the French, which dignity was made hereditary in his family; and on the 19th of November he was crowned at Paris by the pope, who had been obliged to take a journey from Rome for that purpose. Thus Republicanism, which had cost the lives of hundreds of thousands of Frenchmen, vanished, and in its place a monarchy more absolute and oppressive than that of the Bourbons was established.

War once more broke out in India, and Holkar, the Mahratta chief, was again beaten, first by General Frazer, and then by Lord Lake.

The year 1805 is remarkable for the magnitude of the preparations to resist the increasing power of Buonaparte, who had now annexed Genoa to the French empire, and caused himself to be crowned King of Italy. He had written a letter to the King of England, offering to treat for peace separately. This was refused, and in consequence he made great preparations for his favourite threat—the invasion of Great Britain. England on her side made common cause with her allies, and by articles agreed on between her, Austria, and Russia, they were to bring into the field half a million of men, for which Great Britain was to allow £12. 10s. per man.

The events of this campaign proved very disastrous to the allies. The Austrian General Mack suffered

himself to be surrounded by Buonaparte at Ulm, and was obliged to capitulate with all his army. The French immediately marched to Vienna, which they entered, and then pursued the Russians into Moravia.

In Italy, the Archduke Charles was beaten by Massena, and obliged to retreat towards Austria, where he was joined by 90,000 Russians. On the 2nd of December the fatal battle of Austerlitz began, and continued till night, when, after the most sanguinary attacks, victory declared for the French, and from this day the Continent lay prostrate for some years. On the 4th an armistice was agreed upon, and two days after the Russians retreated to their own country, whilst Austria made peace on the terms dictated by Buonaparte.

While the French were thus successful against the allies on land, their naval power received its final blow by the memorable battle of Trafalgar. Lord Nelson, who had searched every part of the Mediterranean in pursuit of the enemy under Villeneuve, the French admiral, having at last obtained intelligence of his destination, immediately proceeded to the West Indies. Villeneuve hearing of his arrival, set sail on his return to France without attempting any thing against our possessions, although he had 10,000 men on board. On his return towards Cadiz, he was met by Sir Robert Calder, who, notwithstanding his great inferiority of force, made the signal for attack, and after a severe action captured two sail of the line.

A. D. 1805.—In the meantime Lord Nelson had returned to England, and being reinforced, sailed again towards Cadiz, into which the combined fleets of France and Spain had entered. On the 19th of October their fleet, to the amount of thirty-three sail of the line, left Cadiz for the Straits of Gibraltar. The British fleet of twenty-seven sail of the line pursued, and on the 21st came up with them off Cape Trafalgar. On the approach of Nelson, the French drew up their line in form of a crescent, while Nelson, whose plan of attack was admirable, bore down on them in a double column, his last telegraphic signal being: "England expects every man to do his duty." Nobly did the British seamen perform it on that day. In four hours the battle terminated in the total defeat of the French and Spaniards,

who lost nineteen sail of the line, and Villeneuve and two Spanish admirals were captured. The loss of our men, although considerable, was greatly aggravated by that of Lord Nelson, who received a musket-ball in his breast, and died at the moment of victory.

On the 1st of July, 1806, General Stuart, who had, since the invasion of Naples by the French, occupied Sicily, embarked a body of 4,800 men, and landed in Calabria. On the 4th he attacked General Regnier, who had 7,000 veteran French troops under his command. The armies, after some firing, rushed on each other with the bayonet, but at the moment of meeting the French turned their backs, and a terrible slaughter was made of them, their regiment, called the Invincible, being nearly annihilated.

Prussia was this year rash enough to engage singly against France and the Confederates of the Rhine, as the German States subservient to France were called by Buonaparte. The consequence was the battle of Jena, in which the Prussians were defeated with immense slaughter, the Duke of Brunswick, their general, was killed, and Prussia entirely subdued.

This year the Cape of Good Hope was taken by Sir David Baird and Sir Home Popham, who, without any orders from home, ventured to attack the Spanish dominions in South America. They succeeded under General Beresford in taking Buenos Ayres; but the Spaniards having recovered from their panic, attacked the British with superior numbers, and obliged them to retreat to their ships.

In 1807, after various bloody battles, the Russians and Prussians made peace with Buonaparte, on condition of their acceding to the Confederation of the Rhine, and shutting the ports of Prussia against the introduction of British manufactures, called by Buonaparte the continental system.

The Dutch island of Curaçoa surrendered to a British squadron under Captain Brisbane, on the 1st of January of this year; and on the 2nd of February Monte-Video was taken by Sir Samuel Achmuty and Admiral Stirling.

In the summer, the recapture of Buenos Ayres was attempted by General Whitelock; which proved very unfortunate; no fewer than 2,500 intrepid men were

killed, wounded, or made prisoners. Whitelock on his return was tried, sentenced to be cashiered, and was declared unworthy of ever serving again in any military capacity.

As it appeared evident that Denmark could not long retain her neutrality, it was determined to prevent the Danish fleet from falling into the hands of the French. A proposal was made to the Danish court to deposit their fleet in the British ports, under a solemn guarantee to restore them at the conclusion of the war: the Danes refused to listen to this, and an attack on Copenhagen was the consequence. After a dreadful conflagration and carnage a capitulation was signed, and their fleet given up. Russia was so indignant at this attack, that she issued a manifesto, declaring her determination of breaking off all intercourse with Great Britain.

Every port of the Continent being thus closed against us except Sweden, an expedition was sent out against the island of Heligoland, which was taken, and afforded to the merchants a secure port and an entrance into all the rivers on that side of Germany, for the admission of their produce.

This year, a treaty was made between France and Spain, the object of which was the conquest of Portugal. For this purpose a French army under General Junot traversed Spain, and entering Portugal, advanced towards Lisbon. The Prince Regent of Portugal, seeing no prospect of resistance, quitted his country, and sought for safety in his South American dominions, accompanied by a British squadron.

1808.—This year Murat with a large army of French entered Madrid as the friend and ally of Ferdinand, who had succeeded to the throne after the deposition of his father. By some mysterious intrigue, Ferdinand, his father, and his two brothers, with a number of the nobles, were allured to Bayonne, where Buonaparte compelled them to sign a formal abdication of the throne of Spain. Napoleon then declared the throne vacant, and transferred it to his brother, Joseph Buonaparte, who abdicated the throne of Naples in favour of Murat.

These proceedings inflamed the Spaniards to the utmost: a general rising took place, and juntas were established to give order to the patriotic enthusiasm.

At this crisis the Spaniards solicited the aid of England: peace between the two countries was proclaimed, and great quantities of arms and ammunition were sent over. Portugal followed the example of her neighbours; the French were expelled from Oporto, Coimbra, and other towns, and obliged to concentrate their forces near Lisbon.

The British Government being resolved to afford every possible aid to her ancient ally, Portugal, sent General Sir Arthur Wellesley with 10,000 men, who, after defeating a French corps at Roleia, advanced to Vimeira, where they were met by Junot with nearly the whole of his army from Lisbon. A battle was fought, which ended in the total defeat of the French, though greatly superior in number. The British troops immediately advanced upon Lisbon. At Cintra, however, a convention was signed between Junot and Sir Hugh Dalrymple, who had taken the command of the English army, by which it was agreed to convey the French troops to France, and the Russian ships in the Tagus to be sent to England, as a deposit till peace was made between Russia and Great Britain.

General Sir John Moore, who commanded the British troops, marched into Spain to the assistance of the Patriots, who had been unable to withstand the French armies, directed by Buonaparte himself, with some of his ablest generals. The British army, by the junction of Sir David Baird from Corunna, amounted to 23,000 foot and 2,000 cavalry, and with these he continued to advance, intending to give battle to Marshal Soult; but receiving intelligence of the plan of the French Emperor, with his numerous armies, to surround him and to cut off his retreat, he immediately began to retrograde through Gallicia, in the course of which the army experienced great distress from privation of food, and the rapidity of their march. On the 11th of January, 1809, they reached Corunna, closely followed by the French, who took a position above the town to obstruct their embarkation. An obstinate engagement ensued: Sir John Moore was mortally wounded, but the English finally repulsed the enemy, and effected their retreat to the ships without further molestation.

In April another British army, under the command

of Sir Arthur Wellesley, landed at Lisbon, and immediately marched towards Oporto against Marshal Soult, who had again entered Portugal and taken possession of that city. On the approach of the English, Soult retreated, pursued by Wellesley, who having formed a junction with Cuesta, a Spanish general, their combined armies proceeded to Talavera, where they were attacked by a French army of 70,000 veterans, commanded by Joseph, the usurping King of Spain, who had under him Jourdan and Sebastiani. After a bloody battle, the French were repulsed with the loss of 10,000 men and many pieces of artillery. The loss of the English, in killed, wounded, and prisoners, was about half that number. For this brilliant victory Sir Arthur Wellesley was raised to the dignity of the peerage, with the title of Lord Wellington.

Immediately after the action, Lord Wellington, who had received news of the junction of the armies under Soult, Ney, and Victor, commenced his retreat towards Portugal, leaving the Spaniards to themselves. After repeated defeats, the latter were obliged to abandon all their positions, and retreat to Cadiz, where they were determined to hold out to the last extremity, and which city indeed was impregnable, as long as they had the English for their allies.

The determined resistance of the undisciplined Spaniards had infused fresh hopes into the powers of the Continent, and Austria now resolved to take advantage of it, and make a grand effort to retrieve her former disgrace. In April the Austrians entered Bavaria, but were defeated in two battles by Napoleon, aided by the Bavarians, Saxons, Wurtemburgs, and Poles, who fought under his standard against their countrymen. Napoleon, with his usual rapidity, marched towards Vienna, which a second time surrendered to the French. The Archduke Charles, who commanded the Austrians, was on the north bank of the Danube with 70,000 men, to prevent the French from crossing that river. Napoleon, however, by means of some islands which lie in the river a few miles up, succeeded in establishing his army on the north side. The Archduke immediately resolved on a general attack, and after a sanguinary battle, obliged Buonaparte to retreat to the island of Lobau,

with the loss of 30,000 of his best troops. Having received great reinforcements, and raised bridges from the island to the northern bank, the whole French army once more crossed the river; and in July was fought the dreadful battle of Wagram, in which it is supposed 300,000 men were engaged. After the most heroic efforts on the part of the Austrians, who were inferior in number, they were totally defeated, and obliged to conclude an armistice. On the 15th of October, peace was signed between the two countries.

During this summer an expedition, upon a large scale, was planned by the British ministry, to make a grand diversion in favour of the Austrians, by a descent on the islands of the Scheldt. The fleet sailed the 1st of August, and in a short time the whole of the islands of Walcheren and South Beveland were conquered; but the insalubrity of that low marshy country made such dreadful havoc among the troops, that, after remaining till the end of the year, it was resolved to abandon the country. Such was the end of this most expensive, most ill-advised, and unfortunate expedition, which produced the deepest sensation of shame and regret among the people, and was the subject of very strong debates in the House of Commons.

The whole of Spain, with the exception of Cadiz, was, at the beginning of the year 1810, in the military occupation of the French, although the guerillas, a species of armed population, much harassed the enemy by seizing their supplies, and cutting off all stragglers from the main armies.

The great contest for the possession of Portugal now began: Massena had entered with 80,000 men; ey had invested Ciudad Rodrigo, which, with Almeida, was obliged to surrender. Lord Wellington concentrated his forces, and retreated towards Lisbon. Massena, who had closely pursued, came up with him at the strong position of Busaco, and commenced an attack, which was bravely repulsed by the British at the point of the bayonet, although so much inferior in numbers to their enemy. Without pursuing the victory, Wellington continued his retreat towards the very strong lines of Torres Vedras, about twenty-five miles from Lisbon, which he had previously admirably fortified.

Massena, finding these lines impregnable, contented himself with fixing his head-quarters at Santorem, a village on the Tagus, and collecting provisions; of which, however, owing to the policy of Wellington, who had taken every thing possible away with him in his retreat, he could only make a scanty supply: his army, in consequence, underwent great privations, from which that of Lord Wellington, with the sea open, the capital behind him, and his camp well secured from the rains, was entirely exempt.

Some important acquisitions were made by England this year in the West-Indies and other parts. Guadaloupe surrendered, and left the French without a single island in that quarter; shortly after, the islands of Bourbon and Mauritius were taken, together with five frigates, twenty-eight merchantmen, and two East-Indiamen. The French forts in the island of Madagascar were destroyed, which stript them of every foot of territory in the East. Amboyna, and the isle of Banda, were taken from the Dutch, and the captors shared an immense booty.

In the beginning of March 1811, Massena, whose army had suffered greatly during the winter, commenced his retreat from Portugal, closely followed by Lord Wellington, whose cavalry was unfortunately much too inferior in number to impede the march of the enemy with effect.

Almeida was now invested by Lord Wellington, whilst Marshal Beresford besieged Olivensa, which surrendered in April. In May, Massena crossed the Agueda, and made an attack on the British with a view to relieve Almeida. The French were repulsed at every point, obliged to retreat, and leave Almeida to its fate; that place was evacuated in the night, and the garrison escaped after blowing up the works.

To relieve Badajoz, Soult attacked Beresford, whose army had been reinforced by the corps of Blake and Castanos. After a sanguinary action the French were repulsed; but the want of cavalry again prevented the allies from profiting by the victory. The loss of the British and Portuguese was nearly 5,000 men, while that of the French was upwards of 9,000, with five generals killed or wounded. In October, General Hill

defeated a French corps under General Girard, and took all his artillery and baggage.

General Graham, who had sailed with 3,000 men to make an attack on the blockading army before Cadiz, performed a very brilliant action, in driving a French force of nearly three times his number from the steep heights of Barrosa, after a very sanguinary engagement, in which the loss of the French amounted to 3,000 killed, wounded, and prisoners, whilst that of the British was 1,240. This diminution of their numbers, however, obliged them to return to Cadiz, without interrupting the blockade.

As the French had now no fleet to oppose the British, few opportunities occurred of displaying the valour of British seamen: Captain Hoste, however, with a small squadron, totally defeated a French one of nearly treble his force. During this summer, Buonaparte was very active with his preparations for the invasion of England, and conscripts from all parts were sent to learn the necessary manœuvres at Antwerp and other places.

Much angry feeling was excited in America at the non-repeal of our orders in council, and an incident occurred which seemed likely to fan this feeling into a flame. The United States frigate, the President, met an English sloop, and as neither captain chose to answer first the question—"What ship?" a firing commenced, which continued nearly three-quarters of an hour, when a suspension took place, and they recognized each other. Much temporary exasperation was the consequence of this affair; but the two governments disavowing any hostile orders, no other consequence resulted from it.

In the East, the Island of Java was taken, after a series of brilliant actions performed by the British advanced troops, under the command of Colonel Gillespie, who with a very inferior number stormed and took the very strongly intrenched camp of General Jansens, defended by 10,000 Dutch troops. This brilliant victory completed the conquest of the Dutch settlements in the East.

In 1812, the war in the Peninsula was carried on with unabated activity. Marshal Victor, with 10,000 men, was obliged to retreat from before Tariffa, which

was bravely defended by Colonel Skerret with a handful of English and Spaniards, amounting only to 1,800 men.

On the 9th of January Lord Wellington invested Ciudad Rodrigo, and on the 19th it was carried by storm; as was also Badajoz after an obstinate defence, in which the loss of the English and Portuguese amounted to nearly 5,000 men in killed and wounded. In the latter place, which had been very strongly fortified, were taken an immense quantity of military stores.

The capture of these two strong positions having left Lord Wellington secure in the rear, he advanced rapidly into Spain, and at Salamanca was encountered by Marshal Marmont. After a variety of marchings and counter-marchings, the French general having gained some positions on the heights extended his left wing, and then moved his army under cover of a heavy cannonade to the attack. The extension of the enemy's left afforded Lord Wellington, who had closely watched the intricate movements of Marmont, an opportunity of which he instantly took advantage. The action became general, and lasted from three in the afternoon till night, when the French fled in all directions, leaving behind them 7,000 prisoners, among whom were one general, six colonels, and 130 officers of inferior rank. Four of their general officers were killed, and Marshal Marmont, their commander-in-chief, was severely wounded. The loss of the allies, of which the far greater part was English, amounted to above 5,000 killed, wounded, and missing.

This great battle had not at first all the advantages which might have been expected, owing to the unwillingness of the Spaniards to submit their operations to the control of a foreign general, which alone could produce that union of efforts, absolutely necessary for the success of the war. After having entered Madrid, Lord Wellington advanced to Burgos, a very strong fortification, which he endeavoured to take by storm, but failed in the attempt, and found himself obliged, by the concentration of all the different corps of the French in those parts, and the advance of the armies of Soult and Victor, to retrograde once more towards Portugal. In this retreat Lord Wellington displayed the most consummate abilities, conducting his army before very

superior numbers to Freynada, on the frontiers of Portugal, where he established his head quarters.

The victory of Salamanca had filled the Spaniards with exultation; and the subsequent retreat of Lord Wellington, convinced them that they must sacrifice all pride and jealousy to the general good, and they therefore appointed him commander-in-chief of all their armies.

After various angry negotiations, the American Government declared war against Great Britain on the 18th of June, and immediately directed their efforts to the conquest of Canada, which they had long wished to annex to their dominions. For this purpose their general, Hill, entered that province, but suffered himself to lie shut up in Fort Detroit, where he was besieged by a very inferior British force, and obliged to surrender his whole army of 2,500 men and thirty-six pieces of cannon. This disgrace was followed by another, in the surrender of General Wadsworth and 900 men, to a British corps under Major-General Sheaffe.

These defeats were, however, in a certain degree compensated by some success at sea, owing to the size, number of men, and weight of metal of the frigates of which their navy was composed, and which were nearly equal to European ships of the line; and thus, when encountered by British frigates, had to contend against very inferior force. The first action took place on the 19th of August, between the American frigate the Constitution, and the English frigate Guerrière, in which the latter was obliged to strike to the very superior fire of the American. This was followed by the capture of the British frigate the Macedonian, after a dreadful engagement of more than two hours by the United States, Commodore Decatur, a frigate with the scantling of a seventy-four. These occurrences, so uncommon in the British navy, though so easily to be accounted for, were a subject of great mortification to England, and of comparative exultation to the Americans.

In Europe, the gathering storm of the preceding year burst forth with all its fury, and produced effects unexpected by the most profound politicians, attended by a destruction of the human species unparalleled in modern warfare. Russia, whose principal trade was with

England, having refused to concur with Buonaparte in his favourite plan of shutting every European port on the Continent against British commerce, he resolved to force the Emperor of Russia into submission; and for this purpose assembled all the disposable force he could collect, both in France and every foreign state under his control. This immense mass of veteran troops, thus marshalled under his banners, in the finest state of equipment and discipline, amounted to upwards of 500,000 men, and with these he passed the Vistula, where he was joined by large bodies of the Poles, whom he entertained with promises of freedom from Russian tyranny, and the re-establishment of their former independence.

About the beginning of July, the whole French army, with their confederates, entered the Russian territory, without opposition from the Russians, whose armies were much inferior to the French, and who had in consequence adopted the plan of acting entirely on the defensive; concentrating their force, and making a stand only in favourable positions, destroying every thing that could furnish subsistence as they advanced, and trusting to their immense deserts and pathless woods, joined to the inclemencies of a Russian winter, for the final destruction of their invaders.

The first determined stand made by the Russians was at Smolensko. After a most sanguinary conflict, the Russians evacuated the city, and retreated towards Moscow. Smolensko, on the retreat of the Russians, was set on fire, whether accidentally or by the retreating army is not known. The Russians continued their retreat till they arrived at the village of Moscwa, where they took up a strong position to cover their ancient capital, which they determined to defend to the last extremity. Here they were attacked by the whole French army; and after a battle, the most bloody recorded in modern warfare, which lasted from morning till night, the Russians, though claiming the victory, were obliged to abandon Moscow, and Buonaparte entering the Kremlin, sat down in the seat of the Czars.

But, however flattering the conquest of Moscow might be to his vanity, he suddenly found himself the master of nothing but smoking ruins. The Russians had

determined to sacrifice this great capital in order to deprive the French of winter quarters, and so well had they taken their measures, that an instantaneous conflagration burst forth in various parts of the city, which, from the greater part of the houses being built of wood, was irresistible, and consumed almost the whole of the buildings. So dreadful and unexpected a catastrophe alarmed the French, and convinced them that the Russians were determined to sacrifice every thing rather than submit. Buonaparte now made overtures of peace, which were rejected with disdain, and fresh bodies of Russians arriving, all supplies were entirely cut off from the French army. Buonaparte, however, lingered some time, unwilling to abandon all hopes, and still trusting to negotiations with the Russian court. At last he reluctantly commenced his retreat on the 19th of October, harassed by almost incessant attacks of the Russians. To add to his disasters, as if by a just judgment of God for his former impious bulletins, the winter set in earlier, and with much greater rigour than usual; whole corps of their troops, famished by hunger, and benumbed by cold, surrendered without resistance; and the loss of horses was so great that almost the whole of their cavalry was dismounted, and their artillery abandoned. The road was covered with the bodies of men and horses, dead through hunger, or frozen by the extreme cold. The loss of the French by capture, up to the 26th of December, was, according to the Russian bulletin, forty-one generals, 1,298 officers, and 167,000 privates, 1,131 pieces of artillery. Buonaparte, on his arrival at Wilna with the small remains of his army, suddenly quitted them, and proceeded in disguise to Paris.

The disasters of the Russian campaign obliged Buonaparte to draw many of his troops from Spain, and in consequence, Lord Wellington, in May, 1813, found himself enabled to advance against King Joseph, who, after having abandoned Madrid, and destroyed the works at Burgos, had taken a position in front of Vittoria. On the 21st of June, Lord Wellington, who had closely pursued the French, commenced an attack, which was followed by one of the most complete victories gained during the war. All their artillery, baggage, and

ammunition-waggons, together with their military chest, fell into the hands of the conquerors. St. Sebastian, in the meantime, surrendered to Sir Thomas Graham, after a desperate resistance, in which the loss was very great on each side.

On the 7th of October, Lord Wellington entered France, and attacked Marshal Soult, who had for some time succeeded to the command of the French army. The enemy was obliged to retreat, and withdraw to a fortified camp near Bayonne.

In the meantime, the French continued to retire from before the Russians, who were now joined by Prussia and Austria. Buonaparte, who had made astonishing efforts to repair his losses, set out from Paris, to make head against the allies. An action was fought on the 2nd of May, near the plains of Lutzen, which ended in the retreat of the French to Dresden, where Buonaparte was joined by the Elector of Saxony.

During these transactions, England had made a treaty with Sweden, who, in consideration of a subsidy from England of one million sterling, engaged to furnish 30,000 men, to act under Bernadotte, who had been made Crown Prince.

Buonaparte, sensible of his difficulties, and that the tide of success was turning against him, made overtures for an armistice, which were accepted; but led to no pacific result. Hostilities recommenced; the French were compelled to withdraw into Dresden, which for some months had employed their engineers in adding to its fortifications, and which now, with the addition of 130,000 French, and Buonaparte at their head, seemed impregnable. The assault was made; but though the allies behaved with the greatest bravery, they were repulsed, and the next day Buonaparte marched out with an immense artillery to attack in his turn. After a tremendous conflict, the allies were obliged to retreat, closely followed by Buonaparte, who, however received a severe check in the defeat of the French General, Vandamme, who surrendered with 10,000 men. The allies now again advanced, and obliged Buonaparte to measure back his steps, after sustaining several severe losses, till he reached Leipsic, where he concentrated his forces to the amount of 180,000 men.

On the 18th of October was fought the celebrated battle of Leipsic, in which the French lost the immense number of 40,000 men in killed, wounded, and prisoners. Leipsic was taken the next morning, together with the King of Saxony, the French garrison and rear-guard of 30,000 men, the sick and wounded reckoned at 22,000, with all the artillery, stores, and magazines. Buonaparte himself narrowly escaped, having fled from the city only two hours before its capture. In this battle an English rocket brigade greatly distinguished itself.

As Buonaparte had made no provision for a retreat, the French troops scattered themselves in all directions, and were taken prisoners in great numbers. Large garrisons, which had been left in various fortified cities in Germany, were obliged to surrender, particularly at Dresden, where Marshal St. Cyr, with 40,000 of his men, worn down by fatigue and hunger, submitted to the Russians.

These apparently irretrievable disasters animated the Dutch to throw off their subjection to Buonaparte: they arose in a body, dismissed the French authorities, and recalled the Prince of Orange from England.

In America, the Congress still entertained hopes of the conquest of Canada, notwithstanding their former ill success. In January, they sent General Winchester with 1,000 troops to attack Fort Detroit: but he was defeated by Colonel Proctor, and taken prisoner with 500 of his men. York, in Upper Canada, was attacked by the Americans, supported by a flotilla and evacuated by the English. The Canadian Lakes now became the chief theatre of war, and many spirited actions took place on their shores and waters; but the superiority in number of the American flotilla obliged the English ultimately to abandon all their posts in Upper Canada.

A grand effort was now made by the Americans for the conquest of Canada. Two armies under Generals Hampton and Wilkinson, the latter with 10,000 men, proceeded to the attack of Montreal. By the admirable conduct of Sir George Prevost and Sir R. Sheaffe, their plans were entirely defeated, and both the Canadas were again freed from their enemies.

At sea, an action was fought between the Shannon.

a British frigate, commanded by Captain Broke, and the United States frigate, Chesapeak, of forty-nine guns, completely manned. Captain Broke, perceiving her weight of metal, seized a favourable opportunity of boarding, and after a short but severe action of ten minutes, carried her within sight of the people of Boston.

The year 1814 opened with the advance of the allied troops towards Paris, in the course of which they sustained repeated attacks from Buonaparte, who disputed every inch of ground with consummate skill. Notwithstanding all his efforts the allies continued progressively to advance, till at last, after various attempts at negotiations by Buonaparte, in order to gain time to bring up his numerous garrisons, he in a fit of desperation, threw himself into the rear of the allies, hoping to cut off their communication, and stop their supplies. The allies, however, seized the opportunity, joined their forces, and marched with 200,000 men directly to Paris.

Whilst these transactions were going on in the North, Lord Wellington, amidst great obstacles, and in face of a large army commanded by Soult, continued to advance into France, and by a revolutionary movement in Bordeaux, was enabled to occupy that large city with a detachment of his army, commanded by Marshal Beresford; whilst he proceeded to attack Soult, who had retreated to Toulouse.

The allies had now arrived in the vicinity of Paris, into which Marshals Mortier and Marmont had thrown themselves. On the 30th of March, Joseph Buonaparte, who had been constituted Buonaparte's lieutenant-general during his absence, took a position on the heights around Paris, protected by redoubts and artillery all along his line. The French were, however, driven from their position, and Paris capitulated. On the 1st of April, a Provisional Government was formed; and the next day a decree was passed by the senate, declaring that Buonaparte had forfeited the throne, and that the hereditary right of his family was abolished.

Buonaparte, on finding the allies had marched towards Paris, made a rapid movement to defend the capital; but finding it already occupied by the allies, he withdrew to Fontainbleau, whence he sent to the senate

offering to abdicate in favour of his son. His proposal being rejected, he was obliged to submit, and signed a formal renunciation of the crowns of France and Italy, for himself and his heirs. On the 11th a treaty was made, by which he had the island of Elba in full sovereignty, with a pension of two millions of francs; whilst Maria Louisa, his wife, daughter of the Emperor of Germany, had the duchies of Parma, Placentia, and Guastalla. Pensions were also bestowed on the various branches of his family.

The war in the South was not, however, entirely finished, owing to the tardy arrival of the messengers sent from Paris to Soult, who is generally believed to have been himself the author of the delay. A sanguinary battle was the consequence, in which, though the allies were completely victorious, they lost 4,000 men. At last advices arrived in all parts from Paris, and a stop was put to the further effusion of blood.

On the 24th of April the King of France left England, under convoy of the Duke of Clarence, and landed at Calais. On the 3rd of May he made his entry into Paris, and on the 30th peace was proclaimed between France and all the allied powers. By this treaty France was to retain her ancient boundaries, and receive some few augmentations on the side of the Netherlands, Germany, and Italy. Malta to remain in possession of England. All the colonies, &c., belonging to France to be restored to her, with the exception of the islands of Tobago, St. Lucia, Mauritius, and Bourbon. France not to erect any fortifications in that part of India restored to her. The German States and Switzerland to remain independent. The dominions of the pope and other Italian States to be restored. France to join with England in mutual efforts for the abolition of the slave trade. Holland was erected, subsequently, into a kingdom, with the Netherlands annexed, which formerly belonged to the House of Austria. Hanover also acquired the title of kingdom. Murat was allowed to retain the kingdom of Naples, in consequence of having abandoned the interests of his brother-in-law, Buonaparte, and acted against the French in Italy, in co-operation with the Austrians. England, by an excess of generosity to France, remitted the whole bal-

ance in her favour for the maintenance of the French prisoners, to an immense amount; in consideration of which, France was to restore all the seizures of property, colleges, &c. &c., belonging to British subjects in France.

Such are the principal articles of a treaty, which afforded ample proof of the extreme moderation of the allies, whose armies soon after quitted France.

The war in America continued with unabated vigour; nearly the whole coast was blockaded by British squadrons. A plan was formed for an attack on Washington, the capital of the United States. A strong body of forces, under General Ross, disembarked on the 20th of August, and began their march. On the 24th they arrived within two leagues of that city, and found a body of 9,000 Americans strongly posted to defend it. They were immediately attacked and defeated, and the same evening the British entered Washington, and burnt all the public buildings, with the dockyard, and a frigate and sloop of war. Private property was respected, and on the 30th the army re-embarked. Fort Washington was taken in the same manner. A plan was next concerted between General Ross and Admiral Cochrane against the city of Baltimore; but General Ross being mortally wounded in the advance, and the Americans greatly outnumbering the British troops, it was thought expedient to retreat, and they re-embarked without molestation.

On the Canadian lakes and northern frontier of the American States, success had varied; but at Plattsburg, a fortification on Lake Champlain, a desperate conflict ensued between the two fleets, which ended in the capture of the whole British flotilla; and, in consequence, General Prevost was obliged to withdraw from the American territories, leaving his sick and wounded in the hands of the Americans.

The inutility of the war was now sufficiently apparent to the Americans; who also perceived, that the pacification of Europe would leave the British ministry free to direct their entire force against them. Peace was therefore concluded; both nations agreeing also to continue their endeavours to abolish totally the slave trade.

1815.—In Europe, tranquillity was far from being firmly established. The French soldiers, from the

general to the private, had been too long accustomed to plunder and licentiousness, to remain satisfied under a monarch, whose very existence in a manner depended on peace; and who, moreover, had been forced upon them by the allies. Buonaparte also, whose vicinity to the French territory in the Mediterranean gave him constant opportunities of communication with the disaffected, failed not, by his partisans, to take advantage of the general feeling. Having sufficiently prepared their minds, and matured his plans, on the 1st of March he landed in Provence, with about 1,000 men, and at Grenoble was joined by the garrison of that city. Thence he marched to Lyons, where he was welcomed with general acclamations, and resumed his title of Emperor of the French.

Immediately on the news of his landing, Louis ordered the army to assemble, which he put under the command of Marshal Ney, who had voluntarily offered himself, and solemnly promised to bring Buonaparte, dead or alive, to the capital. This promise he certainly fulfilled, but in a manner very different from what the King of France, by this deep hypocrisy of his general, had been induced to believe. No sooner had Buonaparte advanced to Auxerre, than Ney published a proclamation, declaring that Buonaparte was about to reascend the throne, and immediately joined him with all his army. Louis, finding the universal defection of the troops, immediately quitted Paris, and on the 20th Buonaparte entered in triumph, without having fired a musket from the time of his landing.

This event caused the greatest sensation throughout Europe. The allied powers immediately assembled in congress, and published a manifesto, declaring that Buonaparte, by breaking the convention, had put himself out of the pale of civilized nations, and engaging not to lay down their arms until he should be deprived of the power of ever again disturbing the world.

Large reinforcements were immediately sent to the British army in the Netherlands, the Duke of Wellington shortly after arrived to take the supreme command of the British and foreign troops in Belgium, and a Prussian army, commanded by Marshal Blucher, assembled in the neighbourhood of Namur.

In the meantime Buonaparte, fully sensible that upon the issue of this contest depended his throne, and perhaps his life, made astonishing efforts to complete his army, and inspire them with confidence. Early in June he left Paris, determined to give battle to the English and Prussian armies before the arrival of the Russians and Austrians. On the 15th he attacked the Prussian posts on the Sambre, and carried them. He then continued his advance towards Brussels, driving a body of Belgians before him to Quatre Bras. Owing to some mistake in the conveyance of the intelligence, the Duke of Wellington did not receive it till late in the evening. He instantly ordered the advance of the troops to the scene of action. On the 16th Blucher was attacked, and, after an obstinate resistance, obliged to retreat, with the loss of 15,000 men; and the Duke of Wellington, who was marching to his assistance, was in his turn attacked by Marshal Ney. All the efforts of the French here were, however, fruitless, their repeated charges were repelled; and the English remained masters of the field, though they lost the Duke of Brunswick, who was killed during the action.

Blucher, after the battle of the 16th, had been obliged to fall back upon Wavre, and this movement made a corresponding one necessary on the part of the British; who, the next morning, took a strong position near Waterloo, on the road to Brussels, having in front the farm of La Haye Sainte and the castle of Houguemont, and on their left the defiles of St. Lambert, by which they kept up a distant communication with the Prussians.

On the 18th commenced the battle which was to hurl Buonaparte from his throne, and restore peace to the world. At ten o'clock the French began the action by a furious attack on the British posted at Houguemont, which continued at intervals through the whole of the day; the English constantly repelling their assailants, without attempting to pursue them. A tremendous cannonade at the same time was kept up by the French along the whole of their line, with incessant charges of their infantry and cavalry. Towards evening the Prussians were descried defiling from the roads on the left of the British, which gave fresh animation to the troops,

almost exhausted by the repeated and sanguinary attacks of the French, whom, when repulsed, they had not been allowed to pursue.

Buonaparte, upon being convinced that the Prussians were now upon the point of forming a junction with the British, made one last and desperate effort along the whole line. The English troops stood firm: the French were again repulsed, and Wellington seizing the moment, gave orders for a general advance, amidst the cheers of the soldiers. In an instant the French were broken and dispersed, leaving on the field 150 pieces of cannon, and all their ammunition. The British, too much exhausted to pursue with vigour, gave up that task to the Prussians, who had just joined, and who performed it with unabated ardour. Such was the issue of the memorable battle of Waterloo, in which the British commander shewed consummate skill, and the troops the most unparalleled bravery. The loss of the British and Hanoverians was about 13,000, but not more than 40,000 of the French survived the defeat and pursuit. Buonaparte fled to Paris, where, finding his power entirely at an end, he signed his abdication and withdrew to Rochefort, in hopes of being able to escape to America. That port was, however, too closely blockaded by British cruizers, and finding all his attempts ineffectual, he determined to throw himself upon British protection. On the 15th of July, he went with his baggage, and a few attendants, and gave himself up to Captain Maitland, of the Bellerophon. It was immediately determined to send him to the island of St. Helena, as a place where he could be kept in perfect security, without too much confinement or restraint.

Murat, his brother-in-law, the usurping King of Naples, had no sooner heard of the advance of Buonaparte to Paris, than, forgetting his promises to the allies, he put himself at the head of his troops, declaring the cause of Buonaparte was his own. He was however soon overpowered, and Ferdinand, the rightful king, reinstated in his dominions. Murat escaped to Corsica: but attempting a landing on the Neapolitan coast, he was surrounded by the armed peasantry, who killed or took his whole party. Murat himself was made prisoner, tried by a military commission, and sentenced to be

shot; which sentence was carried into execution on the 15th of October.

In the meantime, the British and Prussian troops had entered Paris by capitulation, and on the 8th of July, Louis XVIII. re-ascended the throne of France, and the Bourbon government was restored.

The signature of peace between England and America could not be made known time enough to prevent a very sanguinary action which took place in an attack by the British upon New Orleans, in which they were defeated with great loss. An action at sea, in which the British frigate Endymion captured the American ship the President, Commodore Decatur, closed the war, the news of the treaty of peace arriving immediately after.

In India, a war had commenced against the states of Nepaul respecting their boundaries, which was finished by the surrender of the whole tract in dispute to the British.

In Ceylon, a revolution took place in the dominions of the King of Candia, who had long carried on war against the English borders, and had exercised the most atrocious cruelties over his own subjects. Lieutenant-General Brownrigg marched to the assistance of the depressed natives, and being joined by almost all the principal men, proceeded to the capital, whence the king fled with a small number of his adherents, but was pursued and made prisoner by his own subjects. A convention of the nobles was called, who declared the king unworthy to reign, and offered the government to the English, by which the whole of that important island came into the possession of Great Britain.

On the 20th of November, treaties were signed by the allied powers of France, in which it was agreed, that some cessions of territory should be made by France, that about £30,000,000 sterling should be paid to the allies at different periods; that, as a security against any further revolutionary movements on the part of the French, seventeen of their frontier towns should be occupied by the allied troops for five years.

1816.—The general tranquillity of Europe was now re-established; but during a war, which had demanded the whole power of Europe, the ferocious depredations of

the piratical states of Barbary had been permitted to exercise their cruelties, and plunder the weaker states with impunity. Great Britain now undertook to wipe away this disgrace, and procure the abolition of Christian slavery. The result of the contest was no less glorious, than the principles with which she was actuated were noble. The states of Tripoli and Tunis were intimidated, and bound themselves never in future to make slaves of their prisoners of war; but the Dey of Algiers refused all stipulations, imprisoned the English consul, and massacred the crews of some Italian vessels. Lord Exmouth, with a British fleet of five sail of the line, with five frigates and some smaller vessels, joined by a Dutch squadron of five frigates, sailed from Gibraltar to chastise the unprincipled barbarian, who confided in the great strength of his position and fortifications. The action was long and obstinate: but nothing could withstand the heroism of British seamen; the immense Algerine batteries were destroyed; nearly the whole of their navy, together with their military stores and arsenal, were consumed by fire, and an immense slaughter made of their men. The next day the Dey accepted the conditions imposed upon him, which were, to abolish Christian slavery for ever, to deliver up to the British admiral all slaves, of whatsoever nation, immediately, together with all the money received for the redemption of slaves during that year, and pardon to be asked of the British consul by the Dey, in the presence of some British officers, for the insult offered him.

The captives thus rescued were conveyed at the expense of Britain to their respective countries, and the ransoms recovered transmitted to their governments untouched by the captors. Such was the result of the noble service performed by Great Britain to Christendom, without reimbursement, or any other advantage but the glory resulting from so benevolent an undertaking; a glory pure and unmixed, in which both religion and humanity may rejoice.

In November 1818, the plenipotentiaries of Austria, Great Britain, and Prussia assembled at Aix-la-Chapelle, and addressed to the French minister a notification, that as order and tranquillity appeared to be firmly established in France, they had ordered their respec

tive troops to quit the French territories: which notification was acted upon without delay, to the great joy of the French people. Such was the happy termination of the most tremendous conflict the world ever saw, achieved principally by the unconquerable spirit and unfailing resources of the British nation, during the reign of George III.; a monarch who, in the latter years of his life, had been deeply secluded by an unfortunate malady from taking an active part in public affairs.

In the evening of the 29th of January 1820, died this venerated monarch, in the eighty-second year of his age, and sixtieth of his reign.

1820.—GEORGE IV., REIGNED 10 YEARS, 6 MONTHS.

The date of the reign of George IV. is rather in name than in fact. He was publicly proclaimed on the 31st of January. England, exhausted by her late gigantic struggle, was enjoying some repose, when news arrived from the African settlement of Sierra Leone, that grave of Englishmen, of an attack made by the Ashantees upon the colony, and the defeat and massacre of Sir C. M'Carthy, the governor; but his death was subsequently avenged, and those savage warriors were reduced to submission.

In the East, the Burmese, who inhabit an extensive empire east of the Ganges, having made an irruption into the territories of the East-India Company, were defeated with great slaughter in several brave actions, their strong fortifications taken, and their own country completely placed at the mercy of their conquerors. Peace, however, was granted them upon terms which tended greatly to increase the security of our possessions in that quarter.

In Europe, the sovereigns who had so bitterly felt the effects of jacobinical principles, had entered into a league called the Holy Alliance, to check the progress of revolutionary opinions. A congress was held for that purpose at Verona, where a resolution was taken to overturn the recently adopted constitution of Spain, and restore the ancient absolute monarchy. England was applied to, to sanction those proceedings; but the Duke of Wellington, who had been sent to the congress to treat of the destinies of Greece, upon being informed by

the French ministry that the affairs of Spain would also come under discussion, received instructions from Mr. Canning to refuse any acquiescence in the design, and to state the determination of the government to remain neutral.

Early in the year 1824, the Duke D'Angoulême, at the head of a powerful army, which had been some time collecting on the frontiers of Spain, under pretence of being a sanitory cordon against the yellow fever, which then depopulated Spain, entered that country, and soon forced the Spaniards, unprepared for resistance, to an unqualified submission.

The feelings of many in England were greatly excited by this interference: but even had the ministry been inclined, the country was too much exhausted to attempt any effectual resistance.

In 1826, the state of Portugal, our old ally, caused much anxiety to the government. John VI., who died on the 10th of March, had appointed his daughter, the Infanta Isabella, Regent of Portugal, in the name of his eldest son, Don Pedro, Emperor of the Brazils. The constitution of the Brazils obliged him to make his election between the two crowns. Preferring that of Brazil, Don Pedro abdicated the throne of Portugal in favour of his daughter Donna Maria, having previously framed a constitution for the Portuguese, which he transmitted by the hands of the British minister, together with the act of his abdication; and to prevent any commotion in Portugal from the party of Don Miguel, his brother, he directed that his daughter should marry Don Miguel. A strong party, however, aided by the secret influence of France and Spain, determined to make Don Miguel an absolute monarch, and prevailed upon some Portuguese regiments to desert into Spain, where they proclaimed, and swore allegiance to, Don Miguel, and were secretly supported by the Spanish authorities. Under these circumstances, application was made to England for assistance, on the faith of ancient treaties and alliances; and accordingly, in December, messages were brought down to both houses of Parliament, reciting the proceedings of the Spanish government, and calling upon Parliament to maintain the faith of treaties towards Portugal, its oldest ally. The address moved upon the occasion

was carried on the 12th of December, with only four dissentient voices; and, with a promptitude that excited the admiration of Europe, the first detachment of British troops anchored in the Tagus on the 25th of the same month. This expedition speedily effected its object, and the independence and constitution of Portugal were for that time delivered.

The European powers had long looked with an anxious eye towards Greece. The barbarian atrocities of the Turks in that unfortunate country shocked and scandalized Christian Europe. The remonstrances of her ambassadors at Constantinople proving of no avail, Mr. Canning proposed a combined mediation by England, France, and Russia; and, in July 1827, was signed at London a treaty for an armed mediation between the Greeks and Turks, by the English, French, and Russian ministers. In consequence of this, the allied squadrons were sent to the Levant and Archipelago, in order to give effect to the treaty; but the Turkish Divan remained obstinately deaf to the representations of the allied powers, and Ibrahim, the Turkish admiral, continuing his atrocities in the Morea, the allied fleets, under the command of Sir Edward Codrington, sailed into the harbour of Navarino, where they blocked up the combined fleets of Turkey and Egypt, in order to intimidate them into submission. A battle seemed inevitable, yet each side professed to have no hostile intention. A shot fired by a Turkish vessel, said to be accidental, was the signal for a general engagement, and after four hours' fighting, with comparatively small loss to the allies, the bay was covered with the wrecks of the Turkish and Egyptian fleets. This brilliant action virtually achieved the independence of Greece, which was further secured by the arrival of a small military force from France.

In Portugal affairs wore an aspect any thing but favourable to the constitutionalists. It had been hoped that foreign travel and advice had changed entirely Don Miguel's sentiments, and he was accordingly named regent instead of his sister; but immediately upon the departure of the English troops, he seized the crown, in defiance of the claims of his niece, abrogated the constitution, and proclaimed himself absolute. In the meantime Don Pedro had sent his daughter, the young

queen, with a retinue to Europe; but on her touching at Gibraltar she became acquainted with the unfavourable occurrences in Portugal, and was advised to proceed to England, where she was received with royal honours; but finding no present prospect of overthrowing Don Miguel, she returned to her father's court at Rio de Janeiro.

In the meantime death had been making great alterations in the government at home. On the 5th of January, 1827, died his Royal Highness the Duke of York, the brother of his majesty; and on the 17th of February, the Earl of Liverpool was seized by an apoplectic fit, from which he never recovered. He was succeeded by Mr. Canning, whose constitution, already enfeebled by disease, proved too weak for the fatigues, anxieties, and mortifications of office, to which he fell a victim the 8th of August of the same year. Nor did the inexorable hand of death spare even royalty itself: the king, during the last two years, had had frequent attacks of gout, tending to inflammation, oppressed breathing, and great depression. In the beginning of the year 1830 his illness became serious, though it was studiously concealed from the public; but about the middle of April his state was such that bulletins of his health were periodically issued. These announcements were any thing but clear or satisfactory. At one period he was declared convalescent, and by his own orders the bulletins were discontinued, contrary to the judgment of his physicians: such was the tenacity with which he clung to life. But his disease, an ossification of the heart, baffled all medical skill; he was seized with a fit of coughing, burst a blood-vessel, and expired at three o'clock on the morning of the 26th of June, 1830. His remains were deposited in the royal vault at Windsor, on the 16th of July, with the customary solemnities.

WILLIAM IV., REIGNED 7 YEARS, WANTING 5 DAYS.

THE accession of William IV. gave universal satisfaction to the nation. Unlike his brother, George IV., his habits were economical and his manners familiar; he frequently mixed with his people, and shared in their tastes and amusements. He made no immediate change in the ministry, but it was generally supposed, that, having always adopted Whig principles, the policy of

the late reign in excluding that party from office would not long be adhered to. On the 24th of July, the Parliament was dissolved; and, before it was again convened, a revolution broke out in France. Charles X. was deposed and forced into exile, and the Duke of Orleans was called to the throne, by the title of Louis Philippe I., King of the French. This revolution of three days (as it was called) was closely followed by that of Belgium; which, after a brief struggle, ended in severing that country from the dominion of the house of Nassau, and transferring it, after some negotiation, to Prince Leopold.

In England, Kent, and some of the northern counties manifested signs of popular discontent, and great anxiety was felt for the opening of Parliament, and the development of the line of policy to be pursued by the ministry. The very first night, however, of the opening of Parliament, the Duke of Wellington announced, that not only was he not prepared with any measure of reform, but so convinced was he of the perfection of our constitution, that he would strenuously oppose any change in Parliamentary representation. By this declaration, which had the appearance of a defiance, the duke entirely lost his popularity; and when the king had accepted the invitation of the Lord Mayor, to dine with the citizens on the 9th of November, a letter was sent to the duke by one of the city magistrates, advising him to come with a military escort, and informing him that otherwise he would be insulted, and probably injured by the mob. The ministers, hereupon, resolved to put a stop to the entire proceeding; and accordingly, on the 8th of November, it was announced (much to the surprise of the public) that the king's visit would be postponed. This announcement caused a general panic; the funds fell 4 per cent. in one day; but when it was discovered that no serious grounds existed for the apprehension, those who had a share in exciting it were assailed with indignant ridicule. The duke and his colleagues then resigned, and were succeeded by Earl Grey, together with the leaders of the Whigs and the friends of the late Mr. Canning, Mr. Brougham accepting the office of lord chancellor.

The state of Canada now occupied a great deal of

public attention: the colonial House of Assembly went to the extreme length of withholding the supplies; commissioners were sent to arrange, if possible, these differences; but the Canadians of French descent made claims inconsistent with the safety and protection of the British emigrants settled in the country, and even tc the continuance of British dominion, which were therefore rejected, and the assembly was dissolved.

In Upper Canada the new elections produced a majority favourable to the British government; but in Lower Canada, the demands of the French party were augmented; and after a vain attempt to conciliate the House of Assembly, an end was put to the session.

In the session of 1837, resolutions were proposed for administering the government of Canada, in opposition to the refractory House of Assembly; but a gloom was cast over these and all other discussions by the illness of the king, which terminated fatally on the 20th of June. This reign was the only one, in the annals of England, in which there was no execution for treason and no foreign war.

VICTORIA, BEGAN TO REIGN, JUNE 20TH, 1837.

Alexandrina Victoria, only child of Edward, Duke of Kent, succeeded to the throne on the death of her uncle, William the Fourth. Called to rule over a mighty empire at the early age of eighteen, her accession was hailed by the affectionate feelings of all ranks of her subjects. On the 21st of June, 1837, the queen was proclaimed in the metropolis with the usual ceremonies, and on the 17th of the ensuing month, her majesty went in state to prorogue the parliament, which was dissolved the same evening by proclamation.

No change took place in the ministry, and on the 20th of November, the queen opened the session of the new parliament. One of the first subjects recommended to the consideration of both houses, was the disturbed state of Canada. The Canadians had certainly many grievances of which they had just reason to complain; such as the misappropriation of the revenues set apart for the education of the Catholic poor children, and for other charitable institutions: and the refusal or delay to redress them, drove the opponents of government into

open rebellion. Their measures, however, were badly concerted; they were beaten from their entrenchments at St. Eustace, and totally dispersed.

In Upper Canada, the insurgents, aided by a number of American citizens, in an attack upon Toronto, were repulsed by Sir James Head; two of their leaders taken, tried for high treason, and hanged; the remainder were banished. In the mean time a spirit of rebellion again manifested itself in Lower Canada, where the insurgents assembled to the number of 4000; they were attacked and entirely defeated by Sir John Colborne, as were also some bands of lawless subjects of the United States, who had joined the disaffected inhabitants of Upper Canada. By these prompt and vigorous measures, the rebellion was entirely suppressed.

In India, in consequence of the intrigues of the Russian agents, which were subsequently disavowed by the court of St. Petersburgh, the British government was compelled to order the advance of their army upon Candahar, Cabul, and Herat. After occupying Candahar, the troops marched to the attack of Ghizne, one of the strongest places in Asia. In an hour the gates were blown open, and the infantry, forcing their way into the town, planted the British colours on the tower of the citadel; 500 of the garrison were killed, and the remainder with their commander made prisoners. Upon the news of this event, Dost Mahommed sallied from Cabul with 13,000 men; but the greater part of his army deserting, he was compelled to flee with no more than 300 men, abandoning all his artillery and military stores; and Shah Soojah was restored to the sovereignty of Cabul.

To counterbalance this success, a general rising of the Shah's soldiers took place, assisted by the inhabitants of Cabul, who had been secretly instigated by Akbar Khan, son of Dost Mahommed. Sir A. Burnes and several officers were assassinated, and successive attacks made on the British, who, by some unaccountable neglect, do not appear to have had the least suspicion of the designs of the enemy. Almost entirely cut off from their ammunition and provisions, surrounded by numbers, they evacuated Cabul under a convention concluded between Major Pottinger and Akbar Khan; not-

withstanding which, they were attacked on their retreat by that prince, who had seized the famous Khoord Cabul pass, and were nearly all massacred. Emboldened by success, the Affghans attempted to take Candahar during the absence of General Nott; here they were repulsed, as they were in like manner before Jellalabad, in a sortie made by the troops under Sir Robert Sale. These brave men were shortly after joined by General Pollock and by General England, who had forced the principal pass between Quettah and Candahar. This enabled General Nott to march upon Ghizne and Cabul. On the 6th of September, Ghizne was retaken, whilst General Pollock, after forcing the passes, re-occupied Cabul, planting the British flag on the Balla Hissa. After destroying the fortifications, the British left Cabul, and arrived on the 22nd at Jellalabad.

Lord Ellenborough, the Governor-General of India, then issued a proclamation, stating that the disasters of the British army having been fully avenged, the troops would be withdrawn from the Sutlej.

In Scinde, the British troops under Sir Charles Napier defeated a very superior number of troops under the Ameers of Scinde; Hyderabad, the capital, was occupied, and Scinde subsequently annexed to the British empire, to the great joy of the inhabitants, who had been cruelly oppressed by their chiefs. Shortly after, Lord Ellenborough was recalled, and the home government appointed Sir Henry Hardinge to be Governor-General in his place, from whom was received, Feb. 1846, the news of a great battle gained over the Sickhs, after a conflict which lasted three days. The British sustained considerable loss, but an immense slaughter was made of the enemy, from whom was taken a great number of their artillery.

In China, the government of that empire had passed a decree forbidding the importation of opium, the smuggling of which had been carried on to a great extent, chiefly by the connivance of the Chinese officers; who, to screen themselves from discovery and consequent punishment, arrested Captain Elliot, superintendant of the British trade in China, together with several merchants, until they had delivered up all the opium in their possession. In consequence of this outrage, an

armament was sent without delay; and on the 3rd of July, the fort of Amoy was destroyed, a flag of truce having been fired upon by the Chinese. The fleet then proceeded to the isle of Chusan, which was captured, as were also the Bogue forts, after an action of two hours, with trifling loss on the side of the British, but an immense slaughter of the Chinese. Upon this, a communication from the Chinese commissioners was received, and a truce agreed upon; six millions of dollars were paid as an indemnity, and the fort of Hong-Kong given up to the English. This truce, however, was of short duration; the Chinese re-commenced hostilities; in consequence of which Canton itself was attacked by the army and fleet; and, after a dreadful carnage of the Chinese, the city capitulated, agreeing to pay for ransom six millions of dollars within a week. The army then proceeded up the Yang-tze-kiang, the largest river in China. After destroying numerous batteries, and taking nearly 400 guns, the troops entered Shang-Hai, which enabled them to stop all supplies proceeding by water to Pekin. This produced an immediate application from the Chinese government; peace was concluded, an indemnity for the expenses of the war was agreed upon, together with the cession of the island of Hong-Kong in perpetuity.

In Syria, in consequence of the invasion of that country by the troops of the Pasha of Egypt, an armament was sent under the command of Commodore Napier, by virtue of a treaty existing between England and the Porte, in order to force Ibrahim, son of the Pasha, to withdraw from that country. After capturing Beyrout, the commodore proceeded to St. John d'Acre; which, to the consternation of the Egyptians, and the astonishment of all Europe, was taken in a few hours. This brought the Pasha to terms; Syria was evacuated, the Turkish fleet restored to the Porte; and in return the Pasha received Egypt as an hereditary fief of the Sultan.

1848.—On the 18th of June, Lieutenant Edwardes, with a small number of troops, engaged the army of the Dewan Moolraj; and after a sanguinary conflict of nine hours' duration, completely defeated them, capturing nearly all their artillery. In August of the same year

in Africa, a battle was fought against the Dutch boers, by Sir H. Smith, Governor of the Cape of Good Hope, which ended in the rout and dispersion of the rebels.

CHAPTER II.

ECCLESIASTICAL AFFAIRS.

As the Revolution of 1688 took place in consequence of the attempt of James II. to re-introduce the Catholic religion, it was impossible that its professors should not grieve at his ill success and consequent misfortunes, and have reason to apprehend much persecution from his successor. But William was too good a politician to be inclined to violence. He had, moreover, been bred a Calvinist; and finding the established clergy but little disposed towards him, he openly espoused the cause of the Dissenters. Catholics, among the rest, at first experienced the lenity of his government: for though the laws against them remained unrepealed, they were seldom executed with rigour. Subsequently, however, at the instigation of the Dissenters, whom he wished to please, a very severe act was passed, by which priests and Catholic schoolmasters were sentenced to banishment, and a reward of £100 offered for their apprehension. By another clause, Catholics born after the 25th of March, 1700, were prevented from inheriting any estate or purchasing land. They were, moreover, burthened with the payment of double taxes, and seizure of their horses. It is acknowledged by Bishop Burnet, who had a hand in passing this bill, that both the government and the opposition detested the measure, and that each party had loaded it with severe clauses, in hopes of its being rejected by the other, and thus losing their popularity.

Under Queen Anne, Catholics, although subject to the restraints of former laws, lived unmolested. They were too much depressed to cause any fear to her government, which now seemed weary of persecution; and their attachment to her family, in the person of her brother James, could not in reality be displeasing to her.

At the commencement of the reign of George I. some

attempts were made to introduce a more tolerant system; which were not successful, owing to the jealousy of the different sects, and the disagreement of the Catholics among themselves.

The rebellion in 1745 called up the former animosity of the nation; which, however, on the extinction of the hopes of the Pretender, gradually subsided, and Catholics lived in comparative tranquillity during the remainder of the reign of George II., notwithstanding they were sometimes molested by informers, and continued subject to the constructive recusancy act, by which the oaths of supremacy and abjuration of the Stuarts, were allowed to be tendered at the mere will of two justices of the peace, without any previous notice of information.

During the first part of the reign of George III. attempts were made to carry into execution the penal laws against Catholics. Bishop Talbot, uncle to the Earl of Shrewsbury, was tried for his life at the Old Bailey for saying mass, and only escaped conviction from want of evidence. Other priests were prosecuted and imprisoned, and, in some instances, the statutes which deprived Catholics of their landed property were enforced.

The period at length arrived when, no longer in fear of any invasion in favour of the Stuarts, and convinced of the unshaken loyalty of the oppressed Catholics, the government adopted more liberal and enlightened measures. For this purpose a bill was brought into Parliament in 1778, by Sir George Saville, for the repeal of certain penalties and disabilities, including the punishment of officiating priests as felons or traitors; the forfeiture of Catholic heirs educated abroad; the power given to a son or near relation, being a Protestant, to take possession of a father's or other relation's estate; and the depriving them of the power of acquiring landed property by purchase. Although the liberality of the times had, in some measure, previously mitigated the rigour of these cruel provisions, yet it was justly observed, that the continuance of laws which encouraged an unnatural child to deprive his parent of his possessions was so disgraceful and oppressive, as to excite the detestation and astonishment of all Europe. The motion was received with universal approbation, and the bill was passed into a law without opposition.

The passing of this bill induced some persons in Scotland to form a design of proposing its extension to that country in the ensuing session of Parliament. To this they were moreover encouraged by the consideration, that in the General Assembly, sitting at the time the act was first in agitation, a motion for remonstrating against it was rejected by a majority of upwards of a hundred voices. Notwithstanding this appearance of moderation, a spirit of intolerance and jealousy was again rising, which, fostered by the circulation of virulent and calumnious pamphlets, soon displayed its effects in some of the provincial synods, where resolutions were passed expressing a determination to resist every attempt for the relief of Catholics. At the same time some incendiary bigots, chiefly of the lowest class, in Edinburgh and Glasgow, formed an association for the like purpose, which assumed the appellation of "Friends of the Protestant interest." These persons, by their activity in diffusing pamphlets, hand-bills, and letters in the newspapers, kindled such a flame through the country, that it was thought advisable to relinquish the intention of applying for the bill. Fanaticism, however, was not thus to be appeased: letters were dropt in the streets of Edinburgh, calling upon the people to pull down "a Pillar of Popery," lately erected. A mob in consequence, assembled, attacked a building occupied by the Catholic bishop, which they pillaged and set on fire. They next proceeded to the Catholic chapel, the inside of which and of the house, together with the furniture, were demolished, and a considerable library belonging to the bishop was either destroyed or stolen. The rioters, emboldened by the absence of all energy and opposition on the part of the magistrates, attacked the houses of several Catholic tradesmen, whose property they served in like manner.

These disorders, to the disgrace of the police, continued several days unchecked; but when the rioters carried their designs further, and proceeded to attack the houses of Principal Robertson, and Mr. Crosbie, an eminent advocate, whom they considered as promoters of the intended bill, some dragoons were called in to the protection of the city, and peace was at length restored, though not before a proclamation was issued by the

Lord Provost, in which he took upon himself to assure the "well-meaning" people, that no repeal of the penal statutes against the Scotch Catholics should take place. Similar riots occurred at Glasgow, where the house and manufactory of an eminent potter, a Catholic, were destroyed; but the prompt exertions of the magistrates and principal inhabitants soon restored order. These disturbances, however, were but a prelude to those that took place in 1780, in London, which became the scene of riots the most disgraceful to its police, and dangerous to its safety.

At the head of the Scotch associations against any relaxations of the penal laws respecting Catholics was Lord George Gordon, brother to the duke of that name: a man whose character was compounded of enthusiasm, folly, and cunning. Chiefly through his proceedings, the same fanatical spirit was roused in London; where, as early as January, 1780, a deputation from a body calling themselves the Protestant Association, of which he was the patron, waited upon Lord North, to request he would present a petition to Parliament against the law that had been passed in favour of the Catholics, which his lordship positively refused to do.

During the subsequent session of Parliament, Lord George Gordon, who was a member of the House of Commons, frequently interrupted the business by speeches on religion, and the dangers of Popery, and by dividing the House on questions, on which he almost stood alone. His manners and dress were as singular as his language; but he was rather a subject of amusement to the house than of serious apprehension.

In the meanwhile, the association was secretly increasing its members, till, on the 29th of May, at a meeting called by public advertisement, at Coachmaker's Hall, Lord George Gordon took the chair, and made a most inflammatory harangue, in which he asserted the dangers of the rapid increase of Popery, and concluded with moving that the whole body of the Protestant Association should, on the next Friday, accompany him to the House of Commons, to present their petition, declaring at the same time that he would not deliver it if attended by fewer than 20,000 persons, wearing in their hats blue cockades.

On the 2nd of June the associators, marshalled in four divisions, proceeded in great order to the houses of Parliament; but they soon inflamed each other, and committed violent outrages on the persons of such members of both houses as came in their way, particularly those who were regarded as promoters of the obnoxious bill. Upon the motion of Lord George Gordon to have the petition admitted, some debate ensued, during which he often went out to inform the mob of what was passing, and who were the principal opposers of their cause. His motion was rejected by 192 to six. After much time spent in confusion and alarm, a party of soldiers arrived, with a magistrate at their head, who assured the mob that if they would disperse, the soldiers should be ordered away. Upon this they retired from the vicinity of the Parliament House; but it was for the purpose of destroying the Catholic Chapel in Duke Street, Lincoln's-Inn Fields, belonging to the Sardinian ambassador, and the Bavarian Chapel in Warwick Street, Golden Square, which they effected without opposition. The following day the tumult appeared to have nearly subsided; but this calm was but a prelude to a more furious storm. For the particulars of these widely extended scenes of destruction, caused by all the dregs of the metropolis, fired by a blind and indiscriminate rage for devastation and plunder, the periodical publications of the time afford ample information: it will be sufficient here to relate, that several chapels belonging to Catholics, together with many of their houses, and those of persons supposed to be their friends, were burnt or pillaged. On the 7th these disorders were at their height: no fewer than thirty-six fires were seen blazing at one time in different parts of the town, and two attempts were made to force the Bank.

It was now high time to think of saving the capital itself from utter ruin, and even the whole frame of the Government from dissolution. Hitherto the magistrates of London and Westminster, and even the Government, had shewn great supineness and timidity; but the King himself now began to act: troops were ordered from all quarters, with directions that they should not wait for the civil magistrate, but use their arms wherever the rioters appeared. This order was effectually

obeyed; for besides the numbers who were supposed to have perished in the ruins of the conflagration, the return of the killed and wounded amounted to no fewer than 458. By this resolute conduct of the King, tranquillity was soon restored, and the author of the calamity, Lord G. Gordon, was apprehended, committed to the Tower, and subsequently tried for high treason, of which charge he was, however, acquitted. Some years after, he was convicted of publishing a libel on the Queen of France, the French ambassador, and the Empress of Russia, sentenced to five years' imprisonment, and to find bail for his good behaviour in £10,000, which not being able to do, he continued in Newgate till his death.

These disturbances appear to have made some impression upon the Commons, for a bill was proposed for "affording security to the Protestant religion from the encroachments of Popery, by more effectually restraining Papists from taking upon themselves the education of Protestant children." This was rightly considered by the Lords as a concession to that spirit which had produced so many lamentable effects, and therefore unworthy the dignity of Parliament; it was accordingly rejected by a vote of their house for deferring the third reading of the bill to a day beyond the sitting of Parliament.

Some time after the ferment occasioned by the riots had subsided, a meeting was held of some of the principal Catholic nobility and gentry; five of whom were formed into a committee for a limited time, to promote and attend to the affairs of the Roman Catholic body in England. Among the objects which appear to have occupied their attention, was a plan to change the vicarial form of their ecclesiastical government into a regular hierarchy, by the appointment of bishops in ordinary, which they conceived was not only more conformable to the general practice of the church, but would moreover obviate the objection made by their adversaries, of the absolute dependance of the vicars apostolic upon the see of Rome.

The formation of a committee composed solely of laymen, appointed for the express purpose of new-modelling the Catholic hierarchy in this kingdom, certainly

appeared a mode of proceeding not likely to procure the concurrence of those who thought, and with reason, that in a business so immediately concerning the ecclesiastical body, not only should the bishops and clergy have been consulted, but that they should have had the principal direction of the whole affair.

As might have been foreseen, discord, animosity, and reproaches, were the consequence; the project was abandoned; and the time for which the committee had been appointed having expired, they were dissolved, and a new one appointed in 1787, consisting also of five members, to whom were added in the following year, Bishop Talbot, of the London district; Bishop Berrington, coadjutor of the Midland district; and the Rev. Jh. Wilks, a Benedictine monk. Previous to the latter nomination, a memorial was delivered by the committee to Mr. Pitt, which, as it enumerates the principal grievances to which Catholics were subject, is summarily inserted. It begins by shewing that "they are prohibited under severe penalties from exercising their religion.

"That they are subject to heavy punishments for keeping schools to educate their children at home, and to heavy fines for sending them to schools abroad.

"That they are rendered incapable of serving in his majesty's armies and navies.

"That they are restrained from practising in the law.

"That they are obliged to expose the most secret transactions of their families, by the obligation of enrolling their deeds.

"That they are subject to the ignominious fine of the double land-tax.

"That they are deprived of the right of freeholders to vote for county members, and not allowed to vote for any other members.

"That they are excluded from all places, civil and military.

"That they are disqualified from voting in either house of Parliament.

"That their clergy are exposed to heavy penalties, imprisonment, and even death, for exercising their functions.

"That, by the Act passed in 1778, the law which most prevented their enjoying their landed property was repealed, and an oath prescribed to them, by which

they most solemnly disclaim the belief falsely imputed to them, that there exists in any foreign prince, prelate, state, or potentate, either directly or indirectly, any civil jurisdiction, power, superiority, or pre-eminence whatsoever, within this realm.

"That the English Catholics have universally taken this oath.

"That their general conduct has been blameless.

"That they hold no principle which can be construed to extend to the subversion or disturbance of the civil or ecclesiastical government of this country.

"That the British Government and the nation at large have long been sensible of this, and therefore, with a humanity for which the English Catholics are truly grateful, have not permitted the laws against them to be executed in their utmost extent.

"That hence prosecutions against them have been discountenanced by the Government. Informers have been universally despised: the nation is their friend the letter of the law chiefly their enemy. And,

"That upon these grounds your memorialists hope for your support, in their intended application for redress of grievances."

To this memorial Mr. Pitt returned a favourable answer, requesting the Catholics to furnish him with evidence of the opinion of the Catholic Universities relative to the dispensing power of the Pope.

In pursuance of the minister's suggestions, three questions were sent to the Universities of the Sorbonne, Louvaine, Douay, Alcala, and Salamanca, expressed in the following terms:

"1. Has the Pope, or Cardinals, or any body of men, or any individual of the church of Rome, any civil authority, power, jurisdiction, or pre-eminence whatsoever within the realm of England?

"2. Can the Pope, or Cardinals, or any body of men, or any individual of the church of Rome, absolve or dispense with his majesty's subjects from their oath of allegiance, upon any pretext whatsoever?

"3. Is there any principle in the tenets of the Catholic faith, by which Catholics are justified in not keeping faith with heretics, or other persons differing

from them in religious opinions, in any transaction of a public or private nature ?"

To these questions all the Universities returned an absolute and unconditional negative: some of them expressing their astonishment that there could be found persons who would dare to impute to Catholics any thing so absurd and iniquitous.

In the meantime, by order of the Catholic committee, the draft of a bill was prepared by Mr. Charles Butler, their secretary, for a repeal of the laws against the English Catholics; but upon the suggestion, it is said, of Lord Stanhope, who warmly advocated their cause in Parliament, the bill was laid aside and another substituted in its stead, in which the committee consented that the English Catholics should receive the appellation of "Protesting Catholic Dissenters." This protestation was subsequently communicated to the Bishops, Dr. James Talbot, Dr. Thomas Talbot, Dr. Walmesley, and Dr. Gibson, who, with their clergy, and indeed the great body of the Catholics, were by no means content with the appellation designed for them; however, after various modifications in the bill, and explanations, it was signed by them and most of the clergy; and at a general meeting in 1789, by a number of English laity, after which a copy of it was laid before Parliament. Soon after, a fresh oath, instead of the protestation, was adopted by the committee, and shewn by them to the ministers; who made some alterations, to which the committee assented, and in this state it was inserted, June 1789, in Woodfall's Register. Again, however, a new-modelling of it took place, which protracted the time so much, that it was thought advisable not to introduce it to Parliament during that session, but to request Mr. Mitford (now Lord Redesdale) to give notice of his intention to bring it in, in the next. This delay gave time to the bishops to reflect maturely upon the whole tenour of the bill, in consequence of which a synod was convened at Hammersmith in October, at which were present Bishops Walmesley, James Talbot, Thomas Talbot, and Matthew Gibson, together with two coadjutors, Bishops William Sharrock and Charles Berrington, the Rev. Robert Bannister, and the Rev. John Milner. The substance of their meeting is contained in an

encyclical letter, in which the oath is formally condemned, and their flocks enjoined not to take any oath, or to subscribe to any instrument in which their religion was concerned, without the previous approbation of their respective bishops.

In consequence of this condemnation, the committee waited upon Mr. Mitford, to request him to alter the oath to the words of the protestation, which was accordingly done; but it still was pronounced objectionable by Bishop Douglas, who had, upon the death of Bishop James Talbot, become Vicar Apostolic of the London district; by Bishop William Gibson, Vicar Apostolic of the Northern district on the death of Bishop Matthew Gibson; and Bishop Walmesley, of the Midland district. The committee, however, refusing to make any further alterations in the bill, it passed the House of Commons; but in the House of Lords, at the suggestion of the Catholic Bishops, it was rejected, and what is called the Irish oath of 1778 substituted in its place. After depositing the protestation in the British Museum, the committee dissolved itself, and thus ended this unfortunate controversy, in which, during upwards of two years, much acrimony had been displayed, and great scandal given to both Catholics and Protestants.

In Ireland, previous to the union in 1800, negotiations had been entered into by Lord Castlereagh, by which the Catholics were given to understand, that their support of the intended union would be followed by their complete emancipation from all their disabilities. The union took place; but the scruples of the king at that time with regard to the coronation oath, and other impediments, prevented the fulfilment of the minister's promises. After various plans for the accomplishment of so desirable an object, it was suggested by ministers, that in return for so great a boon some securities on the part of the Irish Catholics, with regard to the appointment of their bishops, and the intercourse of their clergy with the see of Rome, would be required by Government, and a veto or negative was in consequence proposed; this at first appeared to meet with the approbation of some of their bishops, but was subsequently rejected by the whole episcopal body, and generally by all the Catholics of Ireland. The bill, in consequence,

which had been introduced into Parliament for their relief, was abandoned.

In England, the Catholic committee having been dissolved, no regular meeting of their body took place till 1808, when one was convened by public advertisement, at which subscriptions were entered into for the purpose of forwarding their claims in Parliament; at the same time a select board was chosen, and in 1813 it was finally organized under the name of "the Catholic Board."

From this period scarcely a session of Parliament elapsed without the introduction of the question of Catholic emancipation. In some instances it passed the House of Commons, but was uniformly negatived in the House of Lords. An act, however, was introduced in 1817, by Government itself, which passed almost without observation. This act authorized the giving of commissions in the army and navy, without requiring previously the taking of the oaths, or subscribing to the declaration. This act did not, however, dispense with the obligation of taking or subscribing subsequently to their appointments, but from the consequences of this they were exempted by the act of indemnity, which passes annually. This was the last of the many public benefits, which the increasing liberality of the times enabled Government to bestow during the reign of George III. on his Catholic subjects; that they are not deficient in the grateful remembrance of them, their steady loyalty, and firm attachment to his throne and family on many a trying occasion, afford ample proof.

A considerable portion of the first session of the Parliament called by George IV. shortly after his accession to the throne, was chiefly occupied by debates on the claims of the Catholics, whose hopes, notwithstanding repeated disappointments, still continued unabated, particularly in Ireland, where a permanent association was formed for the furtherance of their object.

In the session of 1822, Mr. Canning moved for leave to bring in a bill which should restore to the Catholic Peers their right of sitting and voting in the House of Lords. With all the powers of his wonderful genius, that accomplished orator, pressing into his service with admirable felicity the ceremony of the coronation of the

preceding summer, asked: "Did it occur to the ambassadors of Catholic Austria, of Catholic France, when contemplating this animating spectacle, that the Duke of Norfolk would become disseised of the exercise of his privileges among his fellow-peers; that his robes of ceremony were to be laid aside and hung up until the distant (be it a very distant) day, when the coronation of a successor to his present most gracious Sovereign might again call him forth to assist at a similar solemnization —that, after being thus exhibited to the eyes of the Peers and people of England, and to the representatives of the princes and nations of the world, the Duke of Norfolk, highest in rank amongst the Peers—the Lord Clifford, and others like him, representing a long line of illustrious ancestry, as if called forth and furnished for the occasion, like the lustres and banners that flamed and glittered in the scene, were to be, like them, thrown by as useless and trumpery formalities?—that they might bend the knee and kiss the hand—that they might bear the train and rear the canopy—might discharge the offices assigned by Roman pride to their barbarous ancestors,

'Purpurea tollant aulæa Britanni,'

but that with the pageantry of the hour their importance faded away; that as their distinction vanished, their humiliation returned; and that he who headed the procession of Peers to-day, could not sit among them as their equal to-morrow?" This bill passed the Commons by a small majority, but was thrown out of the House of Lords.

On the 3rd of February, 1825, the sixth session of Parliament was opened by commission. After references to foreign affairs and other incidents, the commissioners added: "It is much to be regretted that associations should exist in Ireland which have adopted proceedings irreconcilable with the spirit of the constitution, and calculated, by exciting alarm, and by exasperating animosities, to endanger the peace of society, and to retard the course of national improvement. His Majesty relies upon your wisdom to consider without delay the means of applying a remedy."

Mr. Brougham, on the motion for an address, took

occasion to comment upon this part of the speech. "The speech," said he, "talks of associations in the plural, and not without an object. I warn the House not to be entrapped by the contrivance: that little letter 's' is one of the slyest introductions that ever Belial resorted to, when he would

> 'Make the worse appear
> The better reason, to perplex and dash
> Maturest counsels; for his thoughts are low.'

I am perfectly aware who added that 's'; I know the hand. I discern one of those 'subtle equities' so familiar to a court over which a noble and learned lord presides. Let the proposed measure be carried, and the Catholic Association will be put down with one hand, whilst the Orange Societies will receive only a gentle tap with the other."

A bill, however, was brought in by Mr. Goulbourn, the Irish Secretary, entitled "A Bill to amend the Acts relating to unlawful Societies in Ireland;" in other words to put down the Catholic Association. An eloquent and warm debate ensued, which was protracted by adjournment through four nights, and the motion was at length carried by a majority of 278 to 123.

A Catholic deputation in London, from the association, employed to watch and resist the measures taken for its suppression, presented a petition by Mr. Brougham, denying, and offering to disprove the allegations against it; and Mr. Brougham moved that the petitioners should be heard by counsel at the bar of the house; but his motion was not successful. The bill passed both houses, and received the royal assent on the 9th of March, previous to which the association dissolved itself, only to be resuscitated under another form.

Soon after this, a petition of the Irish Catholics was presented by Sir Francis Burdett, who brought forward a motion in a new form, viz. including the repeal of disabilities, the enactment of a state provision for the clergy, and the raising of the forty-shilling freeholders to a ten-pound franchise. The two latter measures, called in derision "the wings" of the Emancipation Bill, were intended, the one as a security for the state, the other as a protection for the Irish Protestants against the

overwhelming majorities of the Catholics at elections. This motion was carried by a small majority through the Commons.

During the second and third readings of this bill in the Commons, the Duke of York, in presenting a petition from the canons of Windsor against the Catholics in the House of Lords, closed his speech with that memorable declaration, that he would, to the last moment of his life, whatever his situation or under whatever circumstances, resist the emancipation of the Catholics, "So help me God!" Such a speech, coming from the presumptive heir of the crown, is supposed to have had a great share in the rejection of the bill, as well as to stimulate that mass of brute ignorance and bigotry which is to be found even amongst the most enlightened people. The Catholic Question was embarrassed rather than aided by these "wings," and Mr. O'Connell, the popular and indefatigable leader of the Irish Catholics, having consented to the provision for their clergy, as well as lent his aid to disfranchise their forty-shilling freeholders, under the hopes of carrying the Emancipation Bill, no sooner saw the motion lost, and the odium attending his support of "the wings," than he made a public recantation of his errors, and asked pardon of God and his country.

The Lords' committee on the general condition of Ireland was re-appointed at the beginning of this session, and the mass of evidence appended to the report surprised many, and shocked all, by the perusal of such a history of human wrongs and wretchedness in Ireland. The Catholic Association now appeared, after six months' suppression, under a new form, without constituent organization, without committees, without officers, without collections of money, without adjourned meetings, and pursued its destination with more success than ever. The "rent" was received as usual, under the name of "free gifts," and the Catholics began to shew a more daring sense of their numbers and their rights. The clergy joined with the laity, and the consequence was a most astonishing unanimity and singleness of purpose. This power decided the elections in three out of the four provinces in favour of emancipation. It dispossessed the Beresford family of the county represen-

tation of Waterford. Never was popular retribution more just, or the victim better chosen.

The next session of Parliament was opened on the 29th of January, and on the 26th of February Lord John Russell introduced, with an able speech, the consideration of the sacramental test and corporation acts, and moved that they should be referred to a committee of the whole House, with a view to their repeal. In spite of the whole force of ministers, the motion was carried by a majority of 237 to 193, and sent up to the Lords, where, supported by the Duke of Wellington, prime minister, it was approved by the bench of bishops, but opposed by Lord Eldon, who declared that much as he had heard of "the march of intellect," he never had expected to see this bill march into their lordships' house, with the Duke of Wellington and the bishops consenting parties. "For my part," said his lordship, "I will not give up the church: let that be the work of others, whether within or without the church I care not." After several attempts to narrow the principle of the bill in the committee, it passed without opposition through the remaining stages, and became the law of the land, to the great satisfaction of the Catholics, who had used every exertion in favour of it, both from principle and policy.

On the 8th of May, Sir Francis Burdett moved a committee of the whole House on the Catholic claims. This motion was again carried by a majority of six, and, as usual, lost in the House of Lords by a majority of forty-four, with no other novelty than that of an abortive conference on the subject between deputies on the part of each House in the Painted Chamber.

In Ireland, the Catholic clergy continued to identify themselves with the Association, while, on the other hand, fanatical zeal and restless bigotry, which flourished so much in the United Kingdom, combined in a crusade against what they called Popish idolatry; so sanguine in their hopes were the new crusaders, that they promised to subdue the Irish Catholics in a year or two to the Protestant faith. Lord Roden, in the House of Lords, opposed emancipation as unnecessary, because the Catholics of Ireland would soon be Protestant. The ostensible means of "the second reforma-

tion," as it was called, were educating the children of the Catholic poor, or distributing the Bible without note or comment. But under this disguise were practised intrigue, bigotry, and base contrivances. The naked and starving Catholic poor were tempted, by a pretended charity, with food, clothes, and money, to prostitute their consciences, and dress their children in the livery of apostacy.

These attempts could not, of course, be viewed by the Catholic clergy with indifference, and recantations of the so-called popish errors were succeeded by remorse, and a return to their ancient faith.

The first display of their power, to use the expression of Mr. Sheil, one of their most eloquent leaders, "made the Great Captain start." Mr. Vesey Fitzgerald, who had vacated his seat in Parliament for Clare, by becoming a cabinet minister, re-appeared on the hustings of his native county with every advantage of personal character, local influence of family and fortune, and advocacy of the Catholic claims; but he was a member of the Wellington ministry, and the clergy and the Association, by their unbounded influence over the peasantry, drove him from the field the second day, and boldly chose Mr. O'Connell in his place.

The Catholics have been reproached with ingratitude, for unseating one who had advocated their cause; the reproach is unjust; they rejected him only because he belonged to the Wellington administration: his vote and speech were but a mockery, whilst the government to which he belonged was based upon the principle of exclusion. It was, however, well understood that Mr. O'Connell would not be admitted to sit and vote; still it was such an appalling manifestation of Catholic determination and strength as no anti-Catholic minister would venture to encounter on a general election. The success in Clare gave an additional impulse to agitation,—a term which has been applied to the Catholic leaders as one of reproach, but which they now adopted as a title of distinction and honour,—as a strong proof of the power of their party and an earnest of success. The act against the association, which had been evaded by a change of form, expired at the close of the session, and the Association immediately resumed the whole

machinery of its committees, adjourned meetings, and branch associations throughout Ireland. A plan was formed to sever the bond which had existed between the forty-shilling freeholders and their landlords. Hitherto the landlords had made their forty-shilling freeholders repair to the hustings and vote according to their commands; they now exclaimed against the wickedness of the agitators in encouraging tenants "to rebel against their landlords," and about the audacity of "popish priests" in meddling with elections. But the agitators and their clergy pursued their purpose: they told the forty-shilling freeholders that they had a country, a religion, a vote, and a special fund for their relief and defence against the threatened vengeance of their landlords. They devised certain tests, the foremost of which was uncompromising opposition to the ministry so long as the Duke resisted emancipation, and without absolutely pledging themselves to this, no candidate was to have their support. So entirely did the whole Catholic peasantry enter into this feeling, that nocturnal outrage and lawless violence, even local disputes, ceased at their word. It is a paradox in terms, but not the less a fact, that Ireland was pacified by agitation.

The Association had now shewed itself a political engine of great power, directed with great skill and energy. What popular body, with only its moral and intellectual force, ever achieved so much? Two of its members, Mr. O'Connell and Mr. Sheil, particularly distinguished themselves. Mr. O'Connell had had long experience in Irish politics, a perfect knowledge of Irish temper in the peasantry, a ready, dexterous, bold eloquence, which could be humorous, rhetorical, or overwhelming with abusive epithets; his power over aggregate meetings was unbounded. Mr. Sheil, more educated, distinguished as a writer, taking a superior tone of declamation, had more influence with the higher classes of Irish Catholics, and, through the publication of his speeches in the English newspapers, with the English people. The following energetic and faithful description of the state of Ireland at this period produced a great sensation in England:—"Does not a tremendous organization extend over the whole island? Have not all the natural bonds by which men are tied together

been broken and burst asunder? Are not all the relations of society which exist elsewhere, gone? Has not property lost its influence,—has not rank been stripped of the respect which should belong to it,—and has not an internal government sprung up, which, gradually superseding the legitimate authorities, has armed itself with a complete domination? Is it nothing that the whole body of the Catholic clergy are alienated from the state; and that the Catholic gentry, and peasantry, and priesthood, are all combined in one vast confederacy? So much for Catholic indignation while we are at peace! and when England shall be involved in war—I pause! It is not necessary that I should discuss that branch of the division, or point to the cloud which, charged with thunder, is hanging over our heads."

Still the ministry appeared unmoved. No provocation afforded the Irish executive a pretence to act; agitation was at the highest, but without infringing public order or the law. Lord Anglesea had succeeded a popular viceroy: he came with the odium of his appointment by the Wellington ministry—of having used an ill-advised expression in the heat of debate—of having given an obnoxious vote—and his first appearance in Ireland was in consequence unpopular; but his generous character pointed out to him the course he ought to pursue, and he soon became the most popular viceroy.

In the meantime, as the summer advanced, the state of Ireland assumed a more awful aspect. The Orangemen, joined by some who had hitherto remained neutral, forming themselves into rival and hostile associations, under the name of Brunswick Clubs, breathed nothing but defiance. Still the Government continued inactive; but two incidents excited the attention of the public: Mr. Dawson, Secretary to the treasury and the brother-in-law of Mr. Peel, hitherto a zealous anti-emancipator, declared at a public dinner to his constituents of Derry, that he had come to the conclusion of the necessity of emancipation, as the only means of restoring the supremacy of the laws in Ireland.

The Duke of Wellington had formerly had friendly intercourse in Spain with Dr. Curtis, the Catholic Primate of Ireland. In answer to a letter from that prelate on the alarming state of Ireland, the duke expressed

his anxiety to witness the settlement of the Catholic question, but confessed he saw no prospect of such a settlement. "If, however," says he, "we could bury it in oblivion for a short time, I should not despair of seeing a satisfactory result." Whatever may have been the intention of the duke, his letter was sufficiently obscure. Dr. Curtis communicated it to the lord lieutenant, who in reply said, "I differ from the duke, first, because to bury it in oblivion is impossible: and next, if it were possible, it might be represented, that if the Government at once and decidedly refused concession, the Catholics would cease to agitate, and then all the miseries of the last year would be to be acted over again. What I do recommend is, that the measure should not for a moment be lost sight of; that all constitutional means should be resorted to: but that at the same time the most patient forbearance, the most submissive obedience to the laws, should be inculcated, that no personal or offensive language should be held towards those who oppose the claims. Let the Catholic trust to the justice of his cause—to the growing liberality of mankind. My warm anxiety to promote the general interests of this country is the motive that has induced me to give my opinion and offer my advice."

Lord Anglesea's letter was dated the 25th of December, and on the 28th he was recalled: various motives besides the writing the above letter have been assigned for this step: among others, his popularity with the Association, his dining with a popular Irish nobleman. Some, however, are of opinion that the Duke of Wellington, whose mind was made up to grant emancipation, was determined to have the whole glory to himself, and therefore forced a quarrel upon the marquis.

At the beginning of the year 1829, vague rumours on the subject of emancipation began to spread: the Catholics anticipated relief; their opponents, stronger measures of coercion. On the 5th of February, Parliament was opened by commission, with the following decisive recommendation from the throne: "The state of Ireland has been the object of his Majesty's continued solicitude. His Majesty laments that in that part of the United Kingdom an Association should still exist which is dangerous to the public peace, and inconsistent with the

spirit of the constitution ; which keeps alive discord and ill-will amongst his majesty's subjects, and which must, if permitted to continue, effectually obstruct every effort to improve the condition of Ireland. His Majesty confidently relies on the wisdom and on the support of his Parliament ; and his majesty feels assured that you will commit to him such powers as may enable his majesty to maintain his just authority. His Majesty recommends, that when this essential object shall have been accomplished, you should take into your deliberate consideration the whole condition of Ireland, and that you should review the laws which impose civil disabilities on his Majesty's Roman Catholics subjects. You will consider whether the removal of those disabilities can be effected consistently with the full and permanent security of our establishments in church and state, with the maintenance of our religion as established by law, and of the rights and privileges of the bishops and of the clergy of this realm, and of the churches committed to their charge."

The Catholics and the friends of religious liberty received this announcement with a temperate joy ; but the exclusionists set no bounds to their rage. They complained of treacherous desertion and surprise. "Had," said they, "the Duke of Wellington disclosed his intentions sooner, the petitions of the people would have fortified and secured the opposition of the king." The duke, in his vindication, declared that he had not received the king's sanction until near the last moment. Mr. Peel, who came in for no small share of their indignation and reproach, entered into a circumstantial defence of the course he had pursued ; he declared that, to maintain his consistency, he had determined to resign ; but that if he had done so, the duke would have found it difficult to succeed ; and that judging the contemplated measure absolutely necessary, he thought it his duty to support the prime minister.

A call of the house for the 5th of March was ordered; and on that day Mr. Peel rose to move, "a committee of the whole house, to consider of the laws imposing civil disabilities on his Majesty's Roman Catholic subjects."— "They could not," he said, "stand still ; they must re-enact or repeal." He then stated the nature of the mea-

sure, viz., the abolition of civil distinctions, and the equality of civil rights. This declaration was received with a burst of applause. A new oath was proposed to be taken by the Catholic members of Parliament, the only material article of which was, that they would not employ their privileges against the Protestant church or state; and Catholics were to continue disqualified for the offices of Lord Lieutenant of Ireland and Keeper of the Great Seal. The motion was carried by a majority of 348 to 188. Resolutions in the committee proposed by Mr. Peel were agreed to; a bill founded on these was introduced by him, and on the 30th of March it was read a third time and passed.

The next day Mr. Peel, accompanied by an unusual number of members, presented his bill at the bar of the House of Lords, where it was, the same evening, read a first time without opposition. On the 2nd of April came on the second reading, when the Duke of Wellington made one of his best parliamentary speeches. One passage spoken by him, in a tone of deep feeling, made great impression on the house. After recapitulating the dreadful state of society in Ireland, he said, "It has been my fortune, my lords, to have seen much of war—more than most men. I have been constantly engaged in the active duties of my profession from my boyhood until I have grown grey. My life has been passed in scenes of death and human suffering. Circumstances have placed me in countries where the war was internal, between opposite parties of the same nation; and rather than a country I loved should be visited with the calamities I have seen—with the unutterable horrors of civil war—my lords, I would run any risk—I would make any sacrifice—I would freely lay down my life."

The debate was continued by adjournment through four nights. The Archbishop of Canterbury opposed the motion, and moved as an amendment, that the bill should be read a second time that day six months; the great body of the bishops, with few exceptions, supported the amendment, and amongst the lay lords, Lord Eldon shewed himself the most unbending opponent of the bill. It was, however, carried on the 10th, and on the 13th it received the royal assent, and became an eternal

monument of the determined, energetic, and adroit genius of the Duke of Wellington.

The relief bill having now passed, Mr. O'Connell presented himself to take his seat for Clare. The clerk produced the old oath which the late bill had repealed. Mr. O'Connell proposed to take that prescribed to Catholics by the new act. The Speaker informed him, that being returned before the passing of the new act, he was excluded in express terms from its operation. Mr. O'Connell was heard at the bar, and argued ingeniously and ably in support of his right, which, however, was negatived by a majority of 190 to 116. He next day was informed of the decision, and asked if he was ready to take the old oath. He requested leave to look at it, and having for a moment examined it, he said, "I see in this oath an assertion of fact which I know to be false, and an assertion of opinion which I believe to be false." The provision of the new bill which had excluded Mr. O'Connell was expressly intended for that purpose, and had been insisted upon by the king. Mr. O'Connell returned to Ireland, and was re-elected for Clare without opposition. The whole interest of the session was absorbed in this single and all-important measure, and it was prorogued on the 24th of June.

After the passing of the reform bill, one of the measures proposed by the minister was that for regulating the established church in Ireland. The Irish church stands in the unpopular predicament of possessing a wealthy national establishment, while the great majority of the people belong to a different faith. Impediments were in consequence frequently offered to the collection of its revenues; and by far the greater number of the disturbances which have occurred in Ireland for nearly a century past have been, more or less remotely, connected with the tithe question. Under these circumstances the Orange, or Conservative party, supported the claims of their church in their full efficiency, whilst the Whigs and moderate reformers proposed, that after provision had been made for all necessary ecclesiastical uses, the surplus should be applied to some object of public utility, such as national education. The ministers steered a middle course; they abolished ten bishoprics, but in order to facilitate the passage of the bill

through the House of Lords, they were obliged to abandon the clause for applying the surplus to purposes which the opposite party contended were not purely ecclesiastical; and the measure was rendered yet more agreeable to the Irish clergy, by the grant of a million sterling, as a loan, in lieu of the arrears of tithes which they had been unable to collect.

Of the ecclesiastical measures, perhaps few caused greater excitement among the so-called evangelical party, than that for the grant of £30,000 per annum towards the support of the Catholic college of Maynooth. Lord J. Russell spoke in favour of the grant; Sir Robert Inglis, Colonel Sibthorp, and others, against it. Among the latter, Mr. T. Duncombe, on the ground that it was a step towards endowing another Church establishment. After several adjournments, the second reading was carried by a majority of 323 to 176. Towards the close of the debate, two remarkable speeches were made, one by Sir Robert Peel, the other by Lord J. Russell: both concurred in the necessity of a policy of conciliation towards Ireland. Sir J. Graham intimated, that the old days of Protestant ascendancy were gone, and that at all events ministers would not be responsible for governing Ireland on those principles. He emphatically retracted the expression which had fallen from him during the last session in the heat of debate, that "concession had reached its utmost limits," and hoped that his actions had been better than his words. On the 23rd, Mr. Ward brought forward his motion for making the provision for Maynooth college, out of the revenues of the established Church in Ireland. Mr. Macaulay took the opportunity of declaring his views on the subject of the Irish established Church. He said, that in his opinion, of all the institutions now existing in the civilized world, the established Church of Ireland was the most absurd and indefensible. In the House of Lords the bill was supported by the Duke of Wellington, and after several long debates, was finally passed.

In May, Sir James Graham brought forward the measure for establishing three secular colleges in Ireland, wholly independent of religious tests or creeds, for the education of the middle classes. It was strongly

opposed by the so-called evangelical party, and also by many of the Irish Catholic bishops. It was a question of choosing between two evils, and was submitted to by some of the bishops upon that ground. On the second reading, Lord John Manners opposed it on the ground, that it did not provide religious instruction for the pupils. Sir James Graham defended it, and adverted to the alterations he was disposed to make in it. He would not make any endowment for theological purposes, but he would facilitate the erection of halls, in which students would receive religious instruction; he would not however agree to make professorships of logic, geology, and anatomy, exclusively Catholic. Mr. O'Connell protested against the bill, and thanked Sir Robert Inglis for calling it "a godless system of education." The bill finally passed, £100,000 being granted for building the new colleges, with an annual grant of £21,000 for their maintenance.

On the 9th of August, the session which had been laborious beyond precedent, was brought to a close. The speech from the throne was a passing comment on the principal measures of the session, and contained nothing besides of a noticeable character.

The Catholic Institute having had communication with Lord John Russell respecting their share in the government grant for the education of the poor, the Wesleyan Methodists, and some other dissenters, sent a deputation to the minister to express their opposition to any such grant being allowed to the Catholics, intimating, that nonattention to their opinion would, at the approaching dissolution of parliament, not be forgotten. The minister, in consequence, refused to allow any part of the grant already voted to be applied to Catholic purposes, at the same time promising, that the claims of the Catholics should be considered in a separate grant. On the 21st of April, 1847, the Catholic committee of the Institute met to express their indignation at this exclusion from a share in the education grant, and on the same day the Wesleyan Methodists announced their decision to offer no further opposition to the government scheme.

1847.—In October, a rescript was received from Rome by Archbishop McHale, containing a condemna

tion by the Pope and propaganda of the new government colleges in Ireland. About the same time, some documents were said to have been received in London for re-establishing a Catholic hierarchy in England.

In November, two bills were brought in by Mr. Anstey: one to amend the law relating to Roman Catholic charities, the other to repeal the remaining penal enactments against Roman Catholics on account of their religion. The former was withdrawn, and the latter lost by a majority of 87 to 47.

In February, 1848, the Marquis of Lansdowne brought in a bill authorising diplomatic relations with the court of Rome, which, after some discussion, was carried; the royal assent was given to it on the 4th of September, and on the next day, after an unprecedently long session, the parliament was prorogued.

CHAPTER III.

LAWS, GOVERNMENT, &c.

In the Reign of William III., the intrigues of the Whigs and Tories, their perpetual opposition to each other, and the necessity of large supplies to support the continental war, gave rise to two evils of considerable magnitude,—the corruption of the House of Commons, and the national debt; the former, by the sums they employed to bring over their political adversaries, and procure a majority in Parliament; and the latter, by the large loans they contracted to maintain their foreign connections. To put a stop to this corruption as far as it affected the representation of the people, a bill was brought in for triennial parliaments, and William found himself obliged to pass it, or lose the vote of supply by which it was accompanied. The great increase, however, of the influence of the crown, by the speedy and fortunate suppression of the rebellion in 1715, enabled the Whig ministry to crush their political enemies the Tories, by repealing the triennial act, so lately thought essential by their own party. The repeal, though warmly opposed by the Tories, who now took the popu-

lar side of the debate, and by many independent members of both houses, was carried by a great majority.

In 1721, a great shock was given to public credit by a nefarious project, known by the name of the "South Sea Scheme," planned by Sir John Blunt, a director of the South Sea company.—To explain this, it is to be observed, that after the accession of William, the government had been obliged to borrow money, the interest of which was secured by taxes levied on the people, and thus was entailed on the kingdom what is called the national debt. Among the rest of the creditors was the company which traded to the South Sea. This company had offered proposals for reducing all these public funds into one, which were accepted, and an act was passed which received the royal assent. No sooner did this transpire, than the most scandalous arts were practised to enhance the value of the shares and decoy the unwary. The stock gradually arose to the amazing sum of £1,000 for each share of £100, and the whole nation became infested with the avaricious spirit of stock jobbing. The infatuation prevailed from February until September, when the stocks began to fall: the panic then commenced, and by the 29th they had sunk to 150, when several goldsmiths and bankers stopped payment. An infinite number of families were thus ruined, and nothing was heard but grief, disappointment, and despair. A committee was now appointed to enquire into the affair, when the whole villany was discovered; some of the principal agents were taken into custody, others were expelled the Commons, their estates confiscated towards making good the public damages, and such prudent regulations were formed as the case would admit.

At the accession of George II. it was generally imagined that Sir Robert Walpole, then prime minister, would have been dismissed; and could the King have found another equally capable of managing the House of Commons, that event might have happened; but no minister understood better than Sir Robert the temper of the people of England. During his long administration, he never lost a single question which he really wished to carry. The Excise scheme was the first measure that gave a shock to his power; and even that he could have carried, had he not been afraid of the spirit of the peo-

ple. He was so far from checking the freedom of debate, that he bore with equanimity the most scurrilous abuse. In compliance with his friends, he gave way in a few instances to prosecutions for libels; but it is certain, that the English press was never more free than during his administration. Peace was his darling object, and it undoubtedly more than repaid the nation all that was required to support it, by the increase of trade and the improvement of manufactures.

At the death of George II. William Pitt was prime minister, and wielded with extraordinary success the energies of the nation, engaged at that time in a war with France carried on in the four quarters of the globe. No change was immediately made in the ministry by George III. at his accession.

One of the concluding acts of the Parliament, which, according to law, continued its sitting six months after the demise of the king, was to fix the civil list at £800,000 a-year, instead of the specific revenues settled on the late king. Another act which highly endeared the young monarch to the nation, was the bill recommended by him to Parliament, to render the judges irremovable, either at the demise or will of the sovereign.

Mr. Pitt did not long continue in office; thwarted in his design of declaring war against Spain, which he foresaw must take place, he declared that he could no longer remain in a situation which made him responsible for measures he was not allowed to guide; he therefore resigned the seals of secretary, and was made Earl of Chatham.

In the year 1766, Mr. Wilkes, a member of the Commons, who for some time had written a periodical paper called the North Britain, in which Lord Bute and the other ministers were violently attacked, was, upon the publication of his forty-fifth number, seized by three of the king's messengers, who entered his house in the night by virtue of a general warrant issued by one of the secretaries of state. The obnoxious paper was voted by the House of Commons to be a seditious libel, and ordered to be burnt by the common hangman. Mr. Wilkes, however, brought an action against the secretary for seizing his papers. The cause was tried before Lord Chief Justice Pratt and a special jury, who gave a ver

dict in his favour, with large damages, the judge in his charge explicitly declaring the illegality of general warrants.

The session of 1771 is distinguished by an occurrence highly interesting to public liberty, viz. the contest between the House of Commons and the printers of their debates, the publication of which, from that time, has met with no opposition, or impediment.

In 1772, in consequence of the two brothers of George III., the Dukes of Gloucester and Cumberland, having married privately,—the former the Countess Dowager of Waldegrave, the latter a widow lady of the name of Horton,—a bill was brought into Parliament for the express purpose of keeping the succession to the throne as clear and distinct as possible, which was thought essentially necessary for the peace of the nation. By this bill it was enacted, that all the descendants of his late majesty George II., except the issue of such princesses as have married, or may marry, into foreign families, shall be incapable of contracting marriage without the previous consent of the king, or his successors to the throne, signified under the great seal, and declared in council: and that every such marriage, without such consent, shall be null and void: limiting the prohibition, however, to twenty-five years of age; after which, upon giving one year's notice of their intention to the Privy Council, they may marry without the consent of the crown, if Parliament does not, in the meantime, disapprove of the contract; and further, all persons who shall knowingly presume to solemnize or assist at the celebration of such illicit marriage, shall be liable to all the pains and penalties of the statute of *premunire*. This bill was opposed by a great number of peers, who signed a protest against it on the journals of the House of Lords.

In the course of the same session a material alteration was likewise made in the criminal law of the kingdom. Formerly, when a felon refused to plead, he was stretched upon his back at full length, and a heavy weight laid upon his breast, which was gradually increased till he expired, during which cruel operation, he was fed with nothing but a crust of bread and some dirty water. By a bill now brought in, this shameful

practice was abolished, and all felons refusing to plead are adjudged guilty of the crimes laid to their charge.

In the year 1783 the famous coalition ministry, composed of Lord North and his friends on one side, and Mr. Fox and his friends on the other, was announced, but did not continue long to guide the reins of government. Mr. Fox, in attempting to perpetuate his power by the introduction of his famous East-India Bill, was the cause of their dismissal; and to them succeeded Mr. W. Pitt, then only twenty-four years of age, son of the famous Earl of Chatham, as first lord of the treasury and chancellor of the exchequer; Lord Thurlow, high chancellor; Lord Sydney and Marquis Carmarthen, secretaries; the Duke of Rutland, privy seal; and Viscount Howe, Mr. W. Grenville, Lord Mulgrave, and Mr. H. Dundas, to the other departments.

The ensuing parliament presented the uncommon spectacle of a House of Commons almost wholly composed of members in opposition to ministers, and at open variance with them. Every motion made by Mr. Pitt was negatived, and several addresses were presented to the king, by the majority, for the dismissal of his ministers; to which his majesty answered, "that he could see no satisfactory effect that would be produced by their dismission." The parliament, by the advice of the ministers, was soon after dissolved, amidst the threats of Mr. Fox and his party. The succeeding elections fully justified the conduct of Mr. Pitt; upwards of 160 members, mostly friends of the opposition, were rejected, and replaced by those of the ministers.

The session of 1786 is remarkable, in a financial point of view, for the establishment of what is called the sinking fund. By this plan, Mr. Pitt proposed to set aside one million surplus of revenue annually, at compound interest, to be applied to the gradual diminution of the national debt. The policy of the principle being universally admitted, the motion was carried without a division, and the bill immediately passed through both houses, and received the royal assent.

In 1787, an addition of £10,000 per annum was made to the income of the Prince of Wales, and £781,000 appropriated out of the civil list for the payment of the debts in which his highness had involved himself.

In 1788, a subject deeply interesting to every friend of humanity, viz., the abolition of the slave trade, was for the first time introduced into parliament, and, after very prolonged discussions, in that and various other subsequent sessions, was finally carried by very great majorities.

In October the nation was cast into great apprehensions by the sudden indisposition of the king, and the uncertainty of his recovery. A regency was proposed in parliament, Mr. Fox declaring that whenever the sovereign became incapable of exercising his functions, the heir apparent had an undisputed claim to that office; Mr Pitt, on the contrary, maintaining, that the heir apparent had no more right in such a case than any other subject; and that it belonged to the two remaining branches of the legislature, in behalf of the people, to make such a provision. Mr. Pitt, in consequence, early in the next year, moved for leave to bring in a regency bill; but happily it was stopped by the announcement of his majesty's recovery. Congratulatory addresses were immediately and unanimously voted, a day of thanksgiving was appointed, and the national rejoicings on this happy event exceeded every thing of the kind ever before known in the kingdom.

On the 8th of April, 1795, the Prince of Wales was married to Caroline, daughter of the Duke of Brunswick, and niece of his majesty. The annual revenue allowed by parliament on this occasion was very liberal, amounting to £125,000, exclusive of the income from the Duchy of Cornwall, estimated at nearly £20,000 more. Out of this, however, £73,000 was appropriated to the payment of the debts contracted by his royal highness since the last allowance by parliament for that purpose.

In the year 1797, an act was passed, prohibiting, for a limited period, the payments of the bank in specie. A secret committee, appointed to examine the affairs of that great national concern, reported that there was a surplus of property to the amount of nearly four millions, exclusive of the debt owing by government, of almost twelve millions. The measure appears to have been necessary from the high price of gold, owing to the immense sums sent out of the country for the

supply of the army and navy, and subsidies to foreign powers, and the very great calls upon the bank by government.

On the 1st of January, 1801, that great political measure, the union of Great Britain with Ireland, was accomplished. It is undoubtedly one which tends to consolidate more effectually the resources and power of the empire; although it has not yet produced all the beneficial effects that were expected from it. This may, in a great measure, be attributed to the disappointed hopes of the Catholics of Ireland, who were made to believe that a complete emancipation from all their political inabilities, deprivations, and penalties, would be the result of their concurrence in the measure. It was in consequence of this that Mr. Pitt, with those who had sanctioned the stipulation, found it necessary, upon the rejection of the just claims of the Irish, to retire from the ministry, and accordingly he resigned the seals of office as prime minister to Mr. Addington, Speaker of the House of Commons; who was succeeded in the chair by Sir John Mitford.

The year 1806 is rendered remarkable by the deaths of those two eminent statesmen, Mr. Pitt, who died on the 23rd of January; and Mr. Fox, who succeeded him in the ministry, and died the September following. No greater praise can be bestowed upon the integrity of the former than the fact that, after having wielded for so long a time the whole power and revenues of the empire, he died so poor, that his country was obliged to defray the expenses of his funeral, and discharge his debts.

The year 1807 is distinguished by the total abolition of the slave trade, after nineteen years of parliamentary investigation: a work of humanity by which Great Britain acquired more true glory than by the most splendid victories.

In 1811, in consequence of the malady of his Majesty George III., a conference was held between the two houses of parliament, and what is called the Regency Bill was passed, appointing the Prince of Wales regent, and vesting the management of the king's household in the queen.

The administration was, in the year 1812, deprived of its premier, Mr. Percival, in a very tragical manner.

At the moment of his entering the lobby of the House of Commons, one John Bellingham presented a pistol to his left breast, and shot him through the heart. This atrocious deed, it appears, was perpetrated for a supposed private injury. The assassin had sustained great losses in Russia, in some commercial transactions, for which he imagined the English government ought to have procured him redress; and the neglect of his representations, working on a mind naturally gloomy, led him to the fatal act. He was tried, condemned, and paid with his life the forfeit of his horrid crime. Although, perhaps, it would not be easy to adduce any instance in which Mr. Percival had showed himself favourable to religious, or even civil liberty, or to discover any important benefit which the nation had derived from his abilities as a minister; yet his private character had been so much esteemed, and the catastrophe was so dreadful, that even his political opponents testified their regret, by the ample provisions made for his widow and family.

The new ministry, after various plans and attempts, consisted of Lord Liverpool, as first Lord of the treasury, Lord Castlereagh, as minister for foreign affairs, Lord Sidmouth (Mr. Addington), secretary of state for the home department, the Earl of Harrowby, president of the council, and Mr. Vansittart, chancellor of the exchequer.

For some time past, disturbances had existed among the weavers of Nottingham, which extended to the manufacturing districts of Lancashire, Cheshire, and Yorkshire. A great number of outrages were committed, particularly in the destruction of machinery, and attempts were even made upon the lives of some who had been active in suppressing the tumults. The rioters at last adopted a system so completely organized, that it was thought necessary to resort to very rigorous measures, and in consequence a bill was introduced by Lord Castlereagh, and carried by a large majority, to prevent the rioters from obtaining arms, to guard against tumultuary meetings, and give more power to the magistrates of the disturbed districts. One of the clauses, that of the power granted to a single magistrate to search for arms upon bare suspicion, met with much

opposition; but its duration being limited to March, 1813, it was passed into a law.

In 1814, on account of the unfortunate differences which had long existed between the Prince Regent and the Princess of Wales, her situation became a subject of animated discussion, and greatly agitated the minds of the people. A motion was made for augmenting her revenue to £50,000 per year, which was carried, but at her own request it was reduced to £35,000. She then immediately obtained permission to travel on the continent.

At the opening of the minister's budget in the year 1815, when that campaign was commencing which was to be so happily terminated by the memorable battle of Waterloo, no less than the enormous sum of eighty millions sterling was required for the expenditure of Great Britain, exclusive of about ten millions for Ireland. Such was the disturbed state of the country during a great part of the year 1817, that ministers, after much opposition, procured the renewed suspension of the Habeas Corpus Act, and various other restrictions upon the liberty of the subject.

Towards the close of this year, the Princess Charlotte, who had been married to the Prince of Saxe Coburg, gave birth to a dead male child, and sunk herself through exhaustion early the next morning, to the great grief of the whole nation, who had witnessed with delight her conjugal felicity. The following year was marked by the death of her Majesty Queen Charlotte, in the seventy-fifth year of her age.

Discontents, arising principally from the non-employ, and consequent distress of the manufacturing class, continued during the year 1819 to agitate the nation. Meetings were held among the lower orders of the people at Birmingham, Manchester, and other populous towns; and so great was the excitation, that even females entered into what were called "Female Reform Societies. At Birmingham they proceeded to the election of what they termed "a Legislatorial Attorney," to represent the town in the House of Commons. Sir Charles Wolseley having previously declared, that if elected, he was determined to claim his seat, he was unanimously chosen. Government now found it neces-

sary to interfere, and Sir Charles was taken into custody. At Manchester, the reformers, who had placarded a notice of a meeting for the same purpose, were informed of its illegality, and the design was in consequence relinquished. But instead of this a notice was issued, and a meeting was announced for the avowedly legal purpose of petitioning parliament. This meeting took place on the 16th of August, and the concourse of people who attended was immense, amounting to no fewer than 60,000; and among them two clubs of female reformers made their appearance, carrying a white flag. Among the banners carried some were of a menacing nature. At length their most celebrated orator, Mr. Hunt, made his appearance, and commenced his harangue; but his oration was soon interrupted by the appearance of the Manchester yeomanry. Mr. Hunt called to the people to stand firm, fear nothing, and give the military three cheers, which was immediately done. The yeomanry, however, very intemperately dashed into the crowd, trampling upon the people, and forced their way to the waggon upon which Mr. Hunt was haranguing. The commanding officer called out to Mr. Hunt to surrender, which he said he was ready to do to any civil officer who should produce his warrant; upon which the chief police officer took him into custody. A scene of confusion ensued, the cause of which it is difficult to ascertain: it appears, however, upon the whole, that the regular troops conducted themselves with zeal, coolness, and humanity; but that the yeomanry suffered themselves to be led away, by their zeal and fear, to unnecessary acts of violence. The consequence was, that several were killed, and nearly four hundred wounded by the sabres of the yeomanry, or otherwise hurt. Mr. Hunt and some of his associates were imprisoned on charges of high-treason: which however were relinquished, and he was subsequently tried for a misdemeanor, and sentenced to imprisonment for two years and a half, which was considered by many as a very harsh sentence, it being contended that the dispersion of the meeting was an illegal act. In consequence of these disturbances, and of the continued disaffection of the manufacturing districts, government procured, after warm debates in both houses, the passing

of what is called the Six Bills, by which system of coercion, though it considerably abridged the liberty of the subject, it effectually restored the public tranquillity.

Such were the final acts of the year 1819, and of the last parliament of the reign of George III. In the evening of the 29th January, 1820, that monarch expired, almost without a pang, having attained the eighty-second year of his age, and sixtieth of his reign.

The last parliament called during the reign of George III. was prorogued by commission on the 28th of February, and the public were very much astounded by the information with which the speech concluded, viz. a conspiracy to murder his majesty's ministers. The conspiracy referred to was that of Thistlewood and his accomplices, a band of about a dozen desperadoes, who were captured by the police and military on the 23rd of February, in an obscure street called Cato Street, near the Edgeware Road. Their plan was to assassinate the ministers of the crown whilst sitting at a cabinet dinner at the house of Lord Harrowby, then rush out, raise the standard of rebellion, and constitute themselves the heads of a provisional government. The plot was disclosed to the ministers, who made arrangements for surprising the wretches in their den at the moment when they were to issue from it for the perpetration of their bloody work. Thistlewood, whose conduct appeared that of a maniac; Ings, a butcher; Tidd and Brunt, shoemakers; Davidson, a man of colour; and three persons of the lowest and poorest class, were convicted and executed, avowing and vindicating their design.

Preparations were now commenced for the coronation of his majesty, when they were suddenly suspended by an event which excited more public interest than any that had occurred for a long period. This was the return of Queen Caroline to England, and her subsequent trial in the House of Lords. After she had quitted England, as we have elsewhere mentioned, she spent her time in travelling, especially in visiting the most celebrated places in the Mediterranean. She also went to Jerusalem, and several other towns of the Holy Land, and afterwards took up her residence on the Lago de Como, in the Milanese states, subject to the Emperor of Austria. Reports here began to be circu-

lated very injurious to her character, and a secret commission was despatched to investigate their truth. This commission sat a long time, and collected a great mass of evidence. The Princess of Wales, upon learning that persons were thus employed, complained publicly by letters in the English and foreign newspapers, that she was beset by spies and calumniators; that attempts were made to suborn her servants against her; that her bureau was broken open and robbed of papers; and that her life had been attempted by poison.

On the king's accession to the throne, the evidence collected was made the pretext for omitting the queen's name in the liturgy; and at the same time the honours due to her rank were refused her by foreign powers. Deeply irritated, she determined to return to England, and face her accusers. On the 5th of June she landed at Dover, and was received with the greatest enthusiasm by the populace. The same honours were paid to her along the road to the metropolis, where her reception was still more gratifying to her.

On the day of her arrival in London, a message was sent to both houses of Parliament, stating that "the king thinks it necessary, in consequence of the arrival of the queen, to communicate to the House of Lords certain papers respecting the conduct of her majesty since her departure from this kingdom, which he recommends to the immediate and serious attention of the house. "The king has felt the most anxious desire to avert the necessity of disclosures and discussions, which must be as painful to his people as they can be to himself; but the step now taken by the queen leaves him no alternative. The king has the fullest confidence that, in consequence of this communication, the House of Lords will adopt that course of proceeding which the justice of the case, and the honour and dignity of his majesty's crown, may require."

The papers referred to were laid on the table under seal, in a green bag. Some delay was occasioned by a useless effort of the Commons to effect a compromise; this failing, "a bill of pains and penalties," to deprive the queen of her rights and dignities, and to divorce her from her husband, was brought into the House of Lords. This bill was read a first time, a copy ordered

to be sent to the queen, and the second reading fixed for the 17th of August. On the 14th Lord Erskine moved that the queen should be furnished with a list of the witnesses against her. This she would have had of right, in common with every other British subject, were the form of proceeding by indictment or impeachment for high treason. But the majority of the Lords, under the direction of Lord Eldon, took advantage of the legal technicality, to withhold from her the great ægis of the subject against perjured witnesses, and the power and passions of the crown. A specification of the charges, which she declared was necessary for enabling her to produce defensive evidence, was also refused. After an adjournment of some days, the House of Lords met to discuss the second reading. The counsel in support of the bill were the king's attorney, Sir Robert Gifford, and the solicitor-general, Sir John Copley; the king's advocates, Sir C. Robinson, Dr. Adams, and Mr. Parke; and against it, Mr. Brougham, the queen's attorney-general; Mr. Denman, her solicitor-general; Dr. Lushington; and Messrs. Williams, Tindal, and Wilde. Mr. Brougham and Mr. Denman were heard against the bill. Their respective arguments may be read with interest, as models of the first order in judiciary eloquence. The attorney-general's statement occupied two days. The close of it was drowned by the drums, trumpets, and tumultuous acclamations, which announced the approach of the queen, who came unexpectedly to witness the proceedings. The examination of witnesses then began, and produced a remarkable incident. The queen, upon hearing the clerk of the house call the name of Teodoro Majocchi, started from her seat, with a slight shriek, and immediately withdrew. He had been her servant, and her cry, when thus taken by surprise, was considered rather as a movement of indignation and disgust at his treachery, than a symptom of conscious guilt.

The records of this scandalous investigation are wholly unfit for these pages. On the 7th of September the case against the queen was closed, and on the 3rd of October Mr. Brougham entered upon her defence, which conducted with surpassing power. He was ably ded by Mr. Williams. An Italian witness, named

Rastelli, had been examined against the queen; upon application to have him produced for cross-examination, it turned out that he had been sent back to Italy. His absence was looked upon as a piece of criminal contrivance. Colonel Brown was written to, to send him back, and the colonel in answer stated, that Rastelli was ill, and moreover had an insuperable horror of the sea. The queen's evidence being finished, Mr. Denman, in a speech distinguished as much for a fearless boldness as for eloquence, went over the case. He was followed by Dr. Lushington on the same side. The second reading of the bill began on the 2nd of November, and continued by adjournment four days, when it was carried by 123 to 95; and on the 10th, the third reading was carried by a disheartening majority of 108 to 99; upon which Lord Liverpool declared, that with so small a majority, and in the actual state of the public mind, he and his colleagues abandoned the bill.

The coronation was fixed for the 19th of July. The queen demanded a participation in the ceremony, which was refused. On the morning of the 19th, the unhappy queen, unmoved by the entreaties of her friends, proceeded to the door of Westminster Abbey, where she was refused admittance, and was obliged to retire through the populace amidst mingled expressions of disapprobation and applause. The exclusion from the Abbey, and the signs of disapprobation, wounded her deeply; and although her proud and masculine energy enabled her to appear in public as usual, her health visibly declined. On the 30th of July, whilst at Drury-lane theatre, she was taken dangerously ill, and on the 7th of August she closed her troubled life at Brandenburgh House, Hammersmith, having directed in her will that the words, "Here lies Caroline of Brunswick, the injured Queen of England," should be her epitaph.

On the morning of the 14th, after a disgusting contest between her executors and the government for the possession of her remains, they were removed towards Harwich, for the purpose of being interred at Brunswick. The ministers, either from a mistaken prudence, or a worse motive, gave orders that the funeral should take a circuit, to avoid the manifestations of the people through London; but at Kensington the procession

found every road but that of London barricadoed by the mob, and was constrained to take the forbidden route, with the intention of passing through Hyde Park into the northern road. The gate to the Park was closed and barricadoed, but was forced by the military, who proceeded to the Cumberland-gate, which had also been barricadoed. Here began a conflict between the soldiers and the populace, and two of the mob were killed: the people, however, triumphed, and the corpse was taken through the city. Sir Robert Wilson, who had remonstrated with an officer on duty, was dismissed from the army. The directing civil magistrate, who, to prevent the effusion of more blood, had given way to the wish of the people, was also deprived of his commission.

Whilst the queen was on her death-bed, the king was on his way to Ireland. The news of her death reached him on board the packet, and it was in consequence his wish to land privately; but he was recognized by some persons, who immediately proclaimed the news, and the whole population of Dublin pressed around him with the most enthusiastic shouts of welcome. After a short visit he re-embarked, in the presence of an immense multitude, who rent the air with their acclamations and blessings on the first sovereign who had visited Ireland without hostile intentions. Immediately after his return he visited Hanover, and after a brief stay he came back to England.

This year was signalized by an event, which a short time before would have agitated all Europe. This was the death of Napoleon Buonaparte, who expired at St. Helena, on the 5th of May.

To complete the miseries of unfortunate Ireland, a dreadful famine, accompanied by its usual concomitant, disease, spread through the country, particularly in the provinces of Connaught and Munster. The famine was produced by the failure of the potato crop, which constitutes the precarious staple food of the Irish peasantry. The conduct of Government upon this affliction was prompt and humane. £50,000 was placed at the disposal of the Marquis of Wellesley, the Lord Lieutenant, and at the same time the British nation, with a spontaneous and munificent feeling, subscribed large

sums for the relief of their perishing fellow-subjects. The money thus procured mitigated the horrors of this visitation, until the change of season and the next harvest put an end to it.

After the termination of the session of 1822, the king paid a visit to Scotland, and was received in Edinburgh with the utmost enthusiasm. The festivities, however, were soon interrupted by the news of the melancholy death of the Marquis of Londonderry. After a short interval, Mr. Canning was appointed his successor, and received the seals of office as secretary for foreign affairs.

In May, 1823, Sir James Mackintosh moved some resolutions for the purpose of mitigating the severity of the criminal laws, which were negatived; but Mr. Peel brought in and carried four bills upon the same subject, which, although they did not go the length of Sir James's, were still important steps in the progress of amelioration.

On the 5th of January, 1827, died the Duke of York, of dropsy, after an illness of some months, and much suffering. As presumptive heir to the throne, obstinately bent against all concession to the Catholics, serving as a ready and authoritative medium of intolerance to reach the royal ear, his death had a great influence upon the state of parties, and greatly contributed to the advancement of Mr. Canning. On the 12th of April, Mr. Canning was appointed first lord of the treasury, and the announcement was cheered by a great majority of the House of Commons. But Mr. Canning's health had evidently been declining for some time. The ardour of his mind and the clangour of debate had animated and sustained him; but Parliament had no sooner risen, than his illness became decided. After some confinement at his own house, he retired to the Duke of Devonshire's house at Chiswick, where he breathed his last, having been only four months prime minister. Mr. T. Robinson, having been elevated to the peerage by the title of Lord Goderich, was next appointed premier; but the cabinet he had formed soon fell to pieces, and the Duke of Wellington then became prime minister.

The public began now to be much excited with regard to the long-mooted question of a reform in the represen-

tation: and on the 1st of March, 1831, Lord John Russell brought in his famous measure upon that subject. By his bill all boroughs not containing 1,000 inhabitants were disfranchised, those with less than 4,000 were to return but one member, and the rights of representation of which these were deprived, were given to the large manufacturing towns, to four districts of the metropolis, and to divisions of the larger counties.

So important a change in the constitution could not pass without long and protracted debates, and in effect they were continued during seven nights, the second reading of the bill being carried by a majority of only one. On two other subsequent divisions, the ministry were defeated, in consequence of which the Parliament was dissolved by the king in person.

The result of the ensuing elections fully answered the expectations of the reformers, two-thirds of the members were pledged to support the ministry; and on the 22nd of September, the bill passed the Commons and was sent up to the Lords, where, however, it met with a different fate, being rejected by a majority of forty-one. This rejection produced great and even dangerous excitement, but the motion of Lord Ebrington pledging the House of Commons to support the ministry, tended greatly to calm the agitation throughout the country. Serious riots, however, took place at Derby; and at Bristol the excesses of the mob were not suppressed until much injury had been done to private as well as public property. In the ensuing session the reform bill was again introduced, and being carried by a great majority, the houses adjourned to the following year.

When they again met, the reform bill went through its other stages, and was again sent up to the House of Peers, where it passed, but with so many and such great alterations, as virtually took all control over the measure out of the hands of its supporters. Upon this, Lord Grey and the rest of the ministers proposed to the king a new creation of peers, which his Majesty refusing to comply with, all the members of the cabinet instantly resigned. The Duke of Wellington was then applied to by the king to form a new administration, which, opposed as he was by the great bulk of the nation, and a large majority of the House of Commons, it was not in

his power to form, and he therefore resigned his commission into the hands of the king, and advised him to recall his former ministers. Lord Grey, therefore, again took office, and upon his agreeing not to create new peers, the leaders of the opposition seceded from the house until the reform bill had become the law of the land: the royal assent being given to it on the 7th of June. Pursuant to the provisions of the bill, a new election took place, by which the ministers acquired a large majority.

In the next session Mr. O'Connell introduced the subject of the repeal of the union; this motion was rejected by a majority of 520 against 58, but at the same time the House pledged itself "to remove all just causes of complaint, and to promote all well-considered measures of improvement." On the nature of these measures the cabinet was divided, and the majority evincing a disposition to appropriate the surplus of the church revenues to the purposes of education and general utility, the Earl of Ripon, the Duke of Richmond, Mr. Stanley, and Sir James Graham, resigned office. The discussion on the Coercion Bill led to further changes. Earl Grey and Lord Althorp resigned, but the latter returned to office, Lord Melbourne becoming prime minister. On the death of Earl Spencer, Lord Althorp succeeding to the title, was obliged to vacate office, and the king took this opportunity of breaking up the ministry, when Sir Robert Peel, who was at the time on the Continent, was made premier, the Duke of Wellington undertaking the management of the public affairs until his return. Upon the return of Sir Robert Peel, the new cabinet was formed, and the Parliament being dissolved, a new election brought the strength of the parties to a test. When the new Parliament assembled, the ministers were beaten at the very outset in the choice of a speaker, Mr. Abercrombie, the Whig candidate, being preferred to Sir Charles Sutton, the Conservative; and upon the motion of Lord John Russell regarding Irish tithes, involving the principle of appropriation, being carried by a majority of twenty-three, Sir Robert Peel and his colleagues immediately gave in their resignation, and the Melbourne cabinet was restored, with the ex-

ception of Lord Brougham, whose place as Lord Chancellor was supplied by Lord Cottenham.

Immediately upon the re-entry of the Melbourne administration, a bill for reforming the corporations of England was introduced, passed the House of Commons; and after some important alterations in the measure, was carried through the House of Lords, and became the law of the land.

In the session of 1836, a measure was introduced for the reform of the Irish corporations upon the principle of the English one; the Lords, however, thought fit to insist upon the total abolition of corporations in Ireland, to which amendment the Commons refused to agree, and the bill was consequently lost. A similar fate awaited the Irish tithe bill; the Lords rejected the appropriation clause, and the Commons refused to accept it without. Laws were, however passed for the commutation of tithes in England, for the registration of births, deaths, and marriages, and for regulating episcopal sees.

In the parliamentary session of 1837, opposite opinions continued to be maintained, and in consequence little was done, the only appearance of unanimity being in the adoption of resolutions for administering the government of Lower Canada, in opposition to the refractory House of Assembly.

On the opening of the first session of the new parliament, the queen in her speech from the throne, pointed out the several subjects requiring prompt and serious attention, such as the new provision for the Civil List, the disturbed state of Lower Canada, the municipal regulations necessary for the better government of Ireland, the laws relating to the collection of tithes, and the state of the poor in the same country. A debate ensued in the House of Lords, where Earl Roden maintained, that the state of Ireland did not justify the expression in the queen's speech, which asserted the internal peace of that country. The Lord Lieutenant, Earl Mulgrave, now Marquis of Normanby, in reply, proved from various documents, that the condition of that part of the empire under his government was much improved, if compared with what it had been in former periods.

In the Commons, a select committee was moved for

and agreed to, "to consider the best means of providing useful education for the children of the poorer classes." Lord Brougham, in the Upper House, introduced the same subject in a long and interesting speech.

A bill was also passed for abolishing imprisonment for debt except in certain cases; which law has subsequently undergone considerable alterations. An act entitled, "for the more effectual relief of the destitute poor in Ireland," was passed, appointing commissioners with power to build workhouses, form unions, appoint guardians, &c.; an act, repugnant to the habits and wishes of the whole nation, adding much to the discontent already existing in that oppressed country. The Irish Municipal Corporation Bill also passed the Commons on the motion of Lord John Russell, by a majority of 169 to 134, but was subsequently lost, owing to the alterations made in it in the Lords not being agreed to in the Commons. A great financial measure, the reduction of the postage duty to one penny upon all letters not exceeding half an ounce throughout Great Britain and Ireland was passed, much to the satisfaction of all classes of the community. This act came into operation on the 10th of January, 1840. In 1842 was introduced another important measure, viz., the Income Tax; this impost enabled ministers to take off wholly, or in part, the duties upon many of the raw materials used in different branches of our manufactures.

In Ireland, that stumbling block to ministers, the people despairing of ever having their just subjects of complaint redressed, had assembled from time to time in various parts of the country to listen to the advice of Mr. O'Connell and several members of the Repeal Association. The numbers attending these meetings became so great as to alarm the government, and a proclamation was issued, prohibiting one that was intended to be held the next day at Clontarf. A few days after, Mr O'Connell and several of the repeal members were arrested on the charge of conspiracy. After a trial which lasted 24 days, the judge summing up, in what certainly appeared a partial and one-sided manner, the jury, about the appointing of whom some very suspicious circumstances had occurred, brought in a verdict of guilty. Mr. O'Connell and his friends were

sentenced to twelve months' imprisonment, to a fine, and security for seven years. This sentence, upon an appeal to the House of Lords, was reversed, and Mr. O'Connell and his companions set at liberty, after having been in confinement about six months. A succession of bad harvests and the continued stagnation of trade having produced much distress in the manufacturing districts, some evil disposed persons excited the people to acts of insubordination and riot. In Sheffield, they attempted to set fire to the town; but their plot was discovered, and the principal instigators were arrested. At Manchester, the inhabitants were for several days at the mercy of the mob; but at length a regiment of foot guards arrived, and order was restored. Similar disturbances took place in Birmingham and in Wales. They were ultimately quelled, although not without the loss of several lives, and the destruction of much valuable property. In November, 1845, in consequence of the alarming failure of the potato crop, several cabinet councils were held, and various reports circulated as to the intention of the ministers with regard to the opening of the ports for the free admission of corn. These rumours were succeeded by others of ministerial differences, which, in the beginning of the year 1846, proved to be well founded. Sir Robert Peel resigned, and Lord John Russell was sent for by the queen; but being unable to form a ministry, Sir Robert Peel was reinstated. He shortly after announced his plan, which consisted in a great reduction of the duty on corn, and its gradual, until its final extinction in 1849. A considerable diminution of the duty on sugar, and several other articles, was also proposed.

Among the various plans and schemes of speculators, must not be omitted the all absorbing one of railways. In the year 1845, no fewer than 120 railway acts were passed, providing for nearly 3,000 miles of rail, the share capital alone for which amounted to nearly 44 millions of pounds sterling.

The revenue of the country for the year ending Jan. 5th, 1845, amounted to £58,760,346, and the expenditure to £55,273,775, leaving an excess of £3,486,571 in favour of the revenue.

CHAPTER IV.

COMMERCE, MANUFACTURES, &c.

The revocation of the edict of Nantz caused a great number of French Protestants to seek protection in England, where they were much encouraged, and into which they not only introduced the fruits of their industry, to a very considerable amount, in gold and silver, but also greatly improved the manufacture of hats, silks, and linen.

In consequence of this, the importation of those articles from France was soon prohibited; the culture of flax was encouraged; raw or unmanufactured silk was imported from Italy and China; beaver skins were procured from Hudson's Bay, where settlements had been established, and where furs were found in great plenty. Clock and watch work was executed in England with the utmost elegance and exactness, as well as all other kinds of machinery, cutlery, and jewellery. The cotton manufactory, now so highly perfected, was introduced, and toys of all descriptions were at length finished with so much taste and facility, as to become an article of exportation, even to France itself, the birth-place of fashion, and the nursery of splendid trifles.

The trade to the East Indies, however, remained in a languishing state till after the revolution: but this disadvantage was amply compensated by the population, culture, and extension of the colonies in North America and the West Indies, which began to consume a vast quantity of English manufactures. The rich produce of the islands being conveyed in ships of the mother country, afforded employment to a great number of seamen; and as the inhabitants, who did not even make their own wearing apparel, or the common implements of husbandry, were supplied with clothing of all kinds, household furniture, tools, toys, and even luxuries, from the mother country, the intercourse became very active, and was productive of mutual prosperity and happiness. The English islands in the American Archipelago were, in a word, the prime mart for her manufactures, and furnished, in return, sugar, rum, cotton, coffee, cocoa, and other articles,—a more valuable exchange than that of gold.

This commerce with our colonies, instead of diminishing since the separation of the American States from Great Britain, has continually increased. New markets have opened, the supplying of which has given a greater range to the ingenuity of our artisans, whose productions have been adapted to the wants, not of rising colonies, but of wealthy and refined nations; and our commercial system, no longer resting on the artificial basis of monopoly, has been rendered more solid as well as more liberal. The present trade of England to the East Indies forms one of the most stupendous political, as well as commercial machines, that is to be found in history. The trade itself is lodged in a company, which has till lately enjoyed an entire monopoly of it. In addition to their settlements on the coasts of India, the East-India Company, through the various internal revolutions which have happened in Hindostan, have acquired such territorial possessions, as render them the most formidable commercial body ever known in the world. The annual amount of their revenue is only known to the directors of the company, and even to them but very imperfectly. Their expenses are certainly very great, in the maintaining of forts, fleets, and armies; but, after all these are defrayed, the company not only clear a vast sum, but were able to pay to government £400,000 yearly, for a certain time, partly to indemnify the nation for the expenses incurred in protecting them, and partly as a tacit tribute for those possessions that are territorial and not commercial. This company exports to the East Indies all kinds of woollen manufacture, and all sorts of hardware. Their imports consist of tea, china-ware, spices, gums, raw silks, gold, diamonds for home consumption, and of wrought silks, muslins, cottons, and all the woven manufactures of India, for exportation to other countries.

The territorial acquisitions made by the English upon the coast of Guinea, particularly their settlement at Senegal, opened new sources of commerce with Africa. At present, England sends to that coast, iron, brass, lead, shot, swords, knives, firearms, gunpowder, and glass manufacture. The returns are in gold dust, gums, dyeing, and other drugs, red-wood, and ivory.

With Italy, Turkey, Flanders, Holland, Spain, and

Portugal, the balance of trade is in favour of England; with Russia and France against us. The goods exported to Poland, chiefly by way of Dantzic, are many, and the duties upon them low. A greater quantity of manufactured tobacco is sent thither than to any other country.

Inland trade has been greatly improved by the multiplication of canals, which arose from the success of the Duke of Bridgewater. That nobleman having a great quantity of coal, which, on account of the great expense of land carriage, he could not sell to advantage, caused a canal to be cut from Worsley to Manchester, under the direction of Brindley, an ingenius mechanist, who had been bred a wheelwright. No locks were introduced in its progress, and it was conducted through uneven grounds, within vast mounds of earth, under hills, by means of tunnels, and over the river Irwell, by means of an aqueduct, which had been deemed till then an impracticable work. This canal was opened in 1761, and its advantages were soon perceived by its noble proprietor and the public. It was afterwards continued to Liverpool, and the example was soon followed by a subscription, for a similar one, from the Mersey to the Trent. In many other parts of the country, canals were constructed with a promptitude and even eagerness, of which only the public spirit and enterprising activity of the English nation can furnish an example.

Railways were at first used only to facilitate the conveyance of coals, stone, and heavy articles from the pits or mines to the barges. They were gradually employed on a greater scale, particularly in Wales. But the first important work of this nature was the railway between Manchester and Liverpool, opened on the 15th September, 1830. It extends thirty-one miles, and is carried over sixty-three bridges. The entire cost was £820,000. The London and Birmingham railway was opened, through its entire length, on September 17th, 1838, at a cost of about £5,000,000. This line has since been extended to Scotland.

The Great Western is another important railway, which conveys passengers from London to Bristol (distance 117½ miles) in about two and a half hours, and from thence to Exeter at the same rate of velocity.

Other most extensive works of this kind have been formed, and are forming, to connect the leading points throughout the kingdom. The common high roads of England are, perhaps, the best in the world, and it would be unjust to withhold from Mr. M'Adam the praise of having mainly contributed to this great public improvement. In 1823, the turnpike roads extended 24,531 miles in length, and the bye-roads to 90,000 miles.

With regard to the general account of trade, the balance is in favour of England. When war arose between Great Britain and the revolutionary rulers of France, our imports were about twenty millions, and our exports, including foreign merchandise re-exported, approached the value of twenty-five millions; and during the course of the war they rose so high, as to amount, in 1800, to thirty millions and a half imports, and forty-three millions of exports. This is to be understood of the official value, for the real marketable value was above fifty-five millions on the former head, and on the latter fifty-six. The greatest importation, in that year, except from the colonies, proceeded from Russia, and the most copious exportation was to Germany. In 1798, the prime minister calculated the profits on foreign trade to amount to twelve millions, and those of internal traffic and varied industry, to twenty-eight.

The merchants' vessels belonging to the different ports of the British dominions, in 1792, amounted to somewhat more than sixteen thousand, the burthen of which was upwards of a million and a half of tons. In 1800, the number of vessels was nearly eighteen thousand, and the tons were estimated at nearly two millions. In 1846 they amounted to 32,499, and the tons to 3,817,112. The coasting trade is not included in the above. Of this number of vessels England fitted out two-thirds. The royal navy, which in 1761 did not exceed three hundred and seventy-two vessels of all descriptions, amounted in 1800, to nine hundred and six, whereof one hundred and ninety-five were of the line.

The principal manufactures are—

Cotton.—In 1641, a decided mention is made of cotton imported from the Levant, and exported in a manu-

factured state; in 1705, it amounted to rather more than 1,170,000 lbs.; in 1786, to more than 5,000,000 lbs.; in 1792, to 35,000,000 lbs.; in 1809, to 93,000,000 lbs.; in 1817, to 126,000,000 lbs.; in 1832, to 288,000,000 lbs.; in 1846 to 428,000,000 lbs., producing, in manufactured goods, £50,000,000 annually.

In this, as in many other branches of art, the steam-engine has been the great cause of their amazing increase. This machine was so greatly improved by the Messrs. Watts and Bolton, that they may be said to have been the creators of its wonderful power. The demand for cotton goods extending so rapidly, various contrivances were devised for quickening the progress of spinning. Among the most successful, was one invented by Hargrave, a weaver in Lancashire, called a "Jenny," which, though rude in its original form, was soon greatly improved; while its unfortunate contriver, harassed by persecutions for having attempted to diminish the number of hands employed, died in poverty. Arkwright, who was at first merely a rustic barber, applied his mind to the subject, and procured a patent for spinning by means of rollers. His first mill was worked by horses, his second by water. In consequence of his judicious contrivances, spinning and carding were performed with astonishing celerity. These discoveries occasioned the introduction of the calico and muslin manufactures; and, from the extension of the trade (the result of the diminution of labour in each piece) a far greater number of hands are now employed than before the invention of those machines.

Woollen.—In making fine cloth of this description, no nation can excel the English; but for the perfection of the manufacture a certain mixture of Spanish wool is necessary. It is computed that the woollen goods annually made by the artisans and workmen of Great Britain produce, upon an average, £20,000,000, and employ 500,000 persons.

Silk.—The silk manufactures may be valued, in 1832, at 4,500,000 lbs. imported; employing 500,000 persons.

Metals.—The number of persons employed in the manufacture of metals is 350,000, producing to the amount of £17,000,000.

Leather and Hides, Skins, &c.—The leather manufac-

ture employs 250,000 persons, and may be valued at £6,800,000. The importation, in 1830, was 225,000 cwt. of hides, leather tanned 46,800,000 lbs.

Porter.—In 1829, there was brewed about 8,000,000 barrels of porter, and 1,500,000 of table beer.

Soap and Candles.—Of candles there were manufactured 110,000,000 lbs., and of soap 100,000,000 lbs.

Linen.—The value of linen manufactured was about £4,000,000; chiefly in Scotland.

Lace.—The manufacture of lace employs about 220,000 persons, and amounts in value to about £2,000,000.

Porcelain and Glass.—For the improvement of porcelain and pottery, we are indebted to Mr. Wedgewood, with whose well-manufactured ware, not only Great Britain, but also several of the continental nations, are abundantly supplied. The manufacture of glass has been likewise much improved. Clocks and watches are constructed with greater neatness and precision. Astronomical instruments have received an accession of accuracy, and an extension of power, which render them superior to those of all other nations. In a word, every branch of mechanism connected with the arts and sciences is fabricated with increasing skill and elegance.

Mines.—Mines abounding in Great Britain (particularly in Staffordshire, Warwickshire, Lancashire, Durham, Derbyshire, in Wales, and in Scotland), the production, since the application of coke and the invention of steam engines, has been extremely rapid. In the middle of the last century, fifty-five furnaces only produced 17,000 tons; in 1830, there were produced 680,000 tons, and in 1847 800,000 tons of iron.

Copper.—The copper mines are chiefly found in Cornwall, and a small quantity in Devonshire and Anglesea, amounting in all to about 15,000 tons in 1830, and 1847 to 30,000 tons.

Tin.—Found only in Cornwall and Devonshire, and in the island of Banca. The produce, in 1830, amounted to 30,425 cwts.

Lead.—The annual produce of lead from the mines of Cumberland, Northumberland, and Derbyshire, amounts to about 16,000 tons.

Coal.—This most valuable of all the mineral substances of Great Britain is found in almost inexhaustible

quantities in Northumberland, Staffordshire, Derbyshire, Warwickshire, and Glamorganshire. It may be regarded as the main-spring of the whole system of British productions. The Northumberland and Durham field has been estimated at 732 square miles, and the South Wales field at 1,200 miles, which, at the average depth, will be sufficient to supply England for 2,000 years to come. It is supposed to occupy about 160,000 persons, and to produce, annually, 20,000,000 tons. The quantity imported into London, in 1832, was 2,149,820 tons, brought by 7,528 vessels.

Salt.—Britain contains an immense supply of this indispensable necessary of life. The finest and most valuable is the rock salt of Northwich and Middlewich, in the county of Chester. The present produce is estimated at 20,000,000 bushels.

Fisheries.—Of late, the attention of the nation has been more directed to this object. The herring fishery (the most important) belongs almost entirely to Scotland. Next to this ranks the pilchard fishery on the coast of Cornwall and Devon. The whale fishery, within the last twenty years, has considerably diminished, partly owing to the use of gas, and the greater cheapness of rape oil for manufactures. In the year 1820, there were employed 194 vessels, bringing 63,780 tons of oil and 684 tons of whalebone. Essex has a valuable oyster fishery, producing from 14,000 to 15,000 bushels.

During the reign of George IV. steps were taken for a more unshackled and liberal system in the trade of the country. The most important of these were, first, the repeal of what were called protecting duties, between Britain and Ireland; next, the alterations in the laws respecting the silk trade, which were introduced and carried by Mr. Huskisson, although strenuously opposed by partial and short-sighted interest. Commercial treaties were also entered into with the Netherlands, Prussia, and Sweden.

The joint-stock mania of the year 1824 and 1825, the general spirit of commercial speculations, and an unfavourable turn in the exchanges, co-operated in producing great difficulties in the money market: a panic ensued, the failure of some London bankers produced

a general crash among the country bankers, and an unprecedented crisis of ruin and distress ensued. Ministers, however, by giving permission to the Bank to make a temporary issue of bank-notes of one and two pounds, and an extraordinary number of sovereigns from the Mint, relieved the trade and credit of the country.

The distress, however, continued very great at the beginning of the year 1826. The workman was without employ, the tradesman without credit. Country banks and commercial failures continued. In the month of April, a number of workmen assembled in various parts of Lancashire, partially armed, and committed dreadful havoc upon the power looms; but these excitements were soon repressed. In order to restore credit, the Bank came to the resolution of lending three millions upon security, and sent commissioners into the chief trading towns for the purpose of arranging the advances. The knowledge that such loans were attainable restored confidence, and the number applied for fell far short of the funds disposable for that purpose: so much is mercantile credit a creature of the imagination.

Early in May, Mr. Canning introduced two measures into the House: the one for admitting bonded corn on paying a certain duty; the other for giving to ministers the power of admitting foreign grain during the recess of Parliament. Both were carried after a strong opposition. This power was acted upon the ensuing September, on account of the unfavourable state of the harvest.

In the following year Mr. Peel moved the appointment of the committee of finance, and introduced in his speech a comprehensive statement, from which it appeared that a reduction of forty-eight millions and a half of the debt had been effected since 1815, and that the actual unredeemed debt was 777,476,000.

The Duke of Wellington, when prime minister, introduced his measure upon the corn question. It differed materially from Mr. Canning's bill. The medium price, which Mr. Canning had taken at sixty, was raised by the duke to between sixty-four and sixty-five. This bill was carried triumphantly through both houses.

CHAPTER V.

LITERATURE AND ARTS.

As William III., the prime mover of the political machine of Europe, was too much embroiled during the whole of his reign to bestow much attention to polite literature, and as he was considered by nearly half the nation as only the head of a faction, many of the nobility and gentry kept at a distance from court, so that the advance of taste was very inconsiderable till the reign of Queen Anne, when the splendour of heroic actions induced all parties to celebrate the glory of their country. Then appeared a crowd of men of genius,—Newton, Swift, Addison, Congreve, Steele, Rowe, Cowley, Prior, Pope, Thomson, Cowper, Goldsmith,—most of whom not only enjoyed the friendship and familiarity of the principal persons in power, but also obtained pensions and places in some of the less burthensome departments of government; which put it in their power to pass the remainder of their days in ease and independence. Since that period great progress has been made in useful science and polite literature. Black, Cavendish, Priestley, Nicholson, Kirwan, Thompson, Davy, Farraday, and Kyan, have thrown additional lustre over the study of chemistry, which has been enriched by their labours with innumerable discoveries. Astronomy has been cultivated with considerable ability, by Bradley, Maskelyne, Sir Henry Englefield, Herschel, who discovered the planet called after his name, his son, and Lord Rosse, who extended the power of telescopes, and added thousands of stars to the number previously known.

The medical science and chirurgical art are also in several respects better understood and practised than heretofore. One of the most beneficial discoveries of modern date in the healing art is that of vaccination, or the applicability of the cow-pock to the gradual extermination of the small-pox, by Dr. Edward Jenner, who was rewarded by Parliament as the benefactor of the whole human race. The vaccine inoculation thus recommended has been introduced into most of the countries of Europe and other parts of the world.

During the presidency of Sir Joshua Reynolds over

the Academy of Arts, founded by George III., were produced some able painters, sculptors, and architects. Among these may be reckoned West, Shea, Herbert, Etty, Maclise, who executed various historical subjects of considerable merit: Turner, Stanfield, Creswick, Wright, landscape painters; Gainsborough and Morland who delineated scenes of rural life with ability; Opie, a self-taught genius, produced some interesting pieces; Hamilton depicted the female figure with elegance; Mortimer and Barry shewed a spirited pencil; Lawrence and Westall excelled in portraits; Smirke, Wilkie, and Mulready in scenes of humour; De Loutherbourg in sea-pieces; Flaxman, Bacon, Nollekens, and Westmacott, have great merit as sculptors; Pugin, Barry, and Smirke in architecture.

Engraving, of which painting may be said to be the prototype, made also considerable progress in England during the last century. Historical pictures can only become the property of the rich, and are, moreover, liable to be injured greatly by time or accident. Hence the utility of engraving on plates of copper, steel, stone, or wood: it multiplies copies at a moderate price. And here the enterprising liberality of Alderman Boydell, in particular, called forth the dormant talents of native professors. The first masters of this art who rose to high eminence were Woollett, Strange, and Vivarez; among later artists may be reckoned Sharp, Bartolozzi, Schiavonetti, Landseer, Bromley, Finden, Burnet, and Scott. In scientific drawing, Wilson Lowry stood unrivalled; nor must we omit the wood-cuts of Cruickshank. Lithography, or drawing on stone, has also been brought to great perfection, and is a cheap and expeditious mode of producing copies of various kinds of writing, &c.

Music has been much encouraged during the present reign. The grand concerts in the capital give ample scope to the native composers; whilst the Opera House calls forth all the talents of foreign masters. as well as all the powers of execution, both vocal and instrumental, by the most liberal rewards, for the entertainment of the nobility and gentry.

As to public declamation and true eloquence, no nation in the world can produce so many noble examples as the English nation. Witness the fine speeches made

in both houses of Parliament in the reign of Charles I.; and in modern times, Pitt, Burke, Fox, Canning, and a crowd of others, who were long the delight and admiration of their auditors.

With regard to agriculture, little interest had been shewn in the cultivation of the soil till the reign of his Majesty George III., who being himself much delighted with agricultural pursuits, brought this valuable science into fashionable repute, and under his immediate patronage was established that great national institution, "The Board of Agriculture." Thus countenanced, noblemen, gentlemen, and other men of property and talent, made it their peculiar study, and spread their discoveries and inventions through the medium of the press. The consequence has been, that the soil has been improved, green crops rendered more abundant, and the fruits of the earth have acquired a superior degree of excellence, while the implements of husbandry have been increased and simplified. Botany also, by the patronage and attention of the late Princess Charlotte, as well as the Princess Elizabeth, and other distinguished females, became fashionable, and was thus diffused more generally among other classes of the community.

On the subject of education, the improvements in teaching the elementary principles deserve our admiration. When we reflect on the great advantages now possessed, particularly by the lower orders of society, in the amazing efforts that have been made to bestow upon them the benefit of a scholastic education, the pleasing idea presents itself, that if accompanied with well-grounded religious principles, thousands of our fellow-beings, who, from their situations in life, would otherwise be exposed to the temptations of vice and idleness, will become patterns of virtue, and the ornament of their country.

The art of poetry has, during this reign, been cultivated with great success. Among poets of pre-eminent rank may be classed Byron, Scott, Moore, Southey, Campbell, Rogers, Coleridge, and Wordsworth. History also is not without its glory: witness Lingard, Hallam, Turner, Mackintosh, and many others.

CHAPTER VI.

MANNERS.

During the course of the last century the manners of the English underwent a considerable change. Many of their favourite diversions are now disused, and their ancient hospitality is neglected. Their present amusements are chiefly operas, concerts of music, dramatic exhibitions, and sometimes masquerades in or near London; but cards and dancing assemblies are common all over the kingdom. Their rural sports are stag and fox hunting, coursing the hare, fishing, angling, and the athletic diversion of cricket. Horse-races are in high repute by persons of the highest rank. Ringing of bells is a species of music which the English boast of having carried to perfection. Tennis, bowls, billiards, skittles, quoits, are familiar to them. Goff is principally played by the Scotch; the diversion of hurling is also peculiar to the Scots. It is performed upon ice, with large flat stones, often from twenty to two hundred pounds each, which they hurl from a given place to a mark at a considerable distance; and whoever is nearest to the mark wins the game.

Two kinds of diversion, and those highly laudable, are peculiar to the English; these are rowing and sailing. The latter was much patronized and encouraged by the father of George III., and may be considered as a national improvement. The game acts have taken from the common people a great fund of diversion, without answering the purpose of the great; for the farmers and country people destroy the game in nets, which they dare not kill with the gun. This monopoly of game, among so free a people as the Britons, has been often attacked, and as often defended.

Music among the moderns was long only considered in our dramatic entertainments, as an occasional auxiliary. Our first successful musical piece, the celebrated Beggars' Opera of Gay, is said to have been written in ridicule of the Italian opera; though, if burlesque had been its chief object, he would have made Macheath, and all his gang, warble Italian airs, instead of adapting the words of his songs to native tunes. A

new species of musical drama was brought on the English stage by the immortal Handel, to which he gave the name of Oratorio, and in which he exerted all his powers of combining harmony, to the delight and astonishment of the whole musical world.

With regard to genius, the English are remarkable for their mechanical and philosophical inventions to shorten and facilitate labour; by which means, notwithstanding the immense taxes they pay towards the support of the Government, and the consequent high price of every article of necessity or luxury, they are enabled to send manufactures of superior workmanship to all parts of the world. The amazing increase of territory, as well as commercial property, in the East-Indies, has introduced into this country a species of people, who have become rich without industry, and by diminishing the value of gold and silver, have created a new system of finance. This has occasioned a spirit of luxury and gaming, attended with very fatal effects. The plain frugal manners of men of business, which prevailed even as lately as the accession of the present family to the throne, are now disregarded for extravagances in dress and equipage, and the most expensive amusements, not only in the capital, but in every part of the kingdom; although the generality of the English people still love rather to be neat than fine in their apparel; and the appearance of an artisan or manufacturer on holidays is commonly an indication of his industry.

The Highlanders of Scotland wear a plaid composed of woollen stuff called tartan. Above the shirt they wear a piece of the same, consisting of about twelve yards, which they throw over the shoulder, into nearly the form of a Roman toga. Sometimes it is fastened round the middle with a belt, so that part of the plaid hangs down before and behind, and supplies the want of breeches. This they call being dressed in a phelig, which the Lowlanders call a kilt, and which is probably the same word as Celt. Sometimes, they wear a kind of petticoat of the same stuff buckled round the waist, and this they term philibeg. Their stockings are likewise of tartan, tied below the knees with tartan garters, formed into tassels. The poorer people wear upon their feet brogues made of undressed leather; for their heads

they use a blue flat cap of a peculiar woollen manufacture. From the philibeg hung generally their knives, and a dagger, which they called a dirk, and an iron pistol, sometimes of fine workmanship, and inlaid with silver. A large leathern purse, richly adorned with silver, hanging before them, was always part of a Highland chieftain's dress. The attachment of the Highlanders to this dress rendered it a bond of union, which often proved dangerous to the Government; and it was not till their overthrow at Culloden, that the Legislature succeeded in forcing them to a total change in their dress. Its conveniency, however, for the purposes of the field is so great, that the Highland regiments still retain it. Even the common people have of late resumed it, and many of the Highland gentlemen wear it in the summer time.

CHAPTER VII.

REMARKABLE OCCURRENCES.

In June, 1838, the coronation of Queen Victoria was celebrated in Westminster Abbey. The appearance of the interior of the Abbey was splendid in the extreme. Fairs were held in the parks, and fireworks and other amusements provided for the people.

Feb. 10th, 1840.—The marriage of her Majesty with Prince Albert was solemnized at St. James's Chapel. The day was celebrated in the metropolis and throughout the country, by a general holiday and illuminations.

On the 10th June, in the same year, a young man named Oxford discharged two pistols at her Majesty and Prince Albert, as they were proceeding up Constitution Hill in an open phaeton. Providentially, neither her Majesty nor Prince Albert were injured. Oxford was subsequently tried, and being found insane, was confined in Bethlehem hospital. On the 21st of November, 1840, the Queen gave birth to a daughter at Buckingham Palace.

The great apostle of temperance, Father Mathew, in his address to the public, estimated the number of teetotalers in Ireland at 3,300,000. He subsequently

came over to England, and received the pledge from more than 70,000 in the metropolis alone.

On the 9th of November, 1841, the queen gave birth to a male heir to the throne.

In May, 1842, John Francis, a youth under 20 years, fired a pistol at the queen. Happily, her Majesty was uninjured, and Francis taken, tried, found guilty, and condemned to be hanged and quartered; which sentence was subsequently commuted into transportation for life. On the 3rd of July, another attempt was made by one John Bean, aged 17 years. He was tried for a misdemeanour, and sentenced to 18 months imprisonment.

On the 21st of April, 1843, the Duke of Sussex, uncle to her majesty, died at Kensington Palace, in his 74th year. He was buried at the Kensal Green Cemetery, which His Royal Highness had chosen for his last resting place. On the 25th of the same month, the queen gave birth to another daughter.

On the 15th of May, Mr. O'Connell, whose health had been failing for a considerable time, died at Genoa, on his way to Rome. His heart he bequeathed to Rome, his body to Ireland. It is said that upwards of 50,000 persons attended his funeral. His remains were interred with great ceremony in the Prospect Cemetery, Glasnevin, near Dublin.

In February, 1848, a revolution broke out in France. Louis Philippe and his family were obliged to escape in disguise, and seek refuge once more in England. A republic was proclaimed, and finally Louis Napoleon, nephew to the Emperor Buonaparte, was, by an overwhelming majority of the people, elected president of the republic. In Rome, Pius the 9th, after granting a free government to the Roman people, and having liberated from prison all those who had been incarcerated for political offences, was by these very wretches forced to flee from his kingdom, and seek refuge in the Neapolitan States. A republic was then proclaimed by some of the scum of various parts of Italy, and robbery, plunder, and assassination, became the order of the day.

The example of France not only excited the vile passions of plotters and rebels in the continental states, but also in London, where, on the 6th of March, 1848,

a numerous meeting of the lowest rabble ssembled in Trafalgar Square, and after tearing up the wooden fences round Nelson's Column, forced the police to retreat to Scotland Yard; here, being reinforced, the police returned and attacked the mob. Several of the rioters were seized, and quiet was restored. Some of the rioters were subsequently brought to trial, and sentenced to transportation for life.

QUESTIONS.

BOOK I.

1. Whence did the Britons derive their origin?
2. What was the principal cause of their subjection to the Romans?
3. What warlike arms did they use, and who first invaded them?
4. Name their most renowned commanders.
5. Also the most renowned among the Roman generals.
6. When did Cæsar quit Britain, and why?
7. Relate the speech of Caractacus before the Emperor Claudius.
8. What British Queen fought against the Romans, and what became of her and her daughters?
9. Who finally established the Roman power in this island?
10. Who built a wall across the island, and for what purpose?
11. Who rebuilt it, and why?
12. When did Britain become a Roman province?
13. How long did the Romans remain in the island?
14. Why did the Romans withdraw their troops from Britain?
15. Who took advantage of their absence to invade the country?
16. By whose advice were the Saxons called in, and who were they?
17. What Saxon chiefs landed in the island, and how did they act?

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1. What was the religion of the Britons.
2. Who were the Druids, and what did they teach?
3. What kind of temples had they?
4. When was Christianity introduced into Britain, and by whom?
5. Who was the first Christian king in Europe?
6. Who was the protomartyr in Britain?
7. Under what emperor was the first persecution of the Christians in Britain?
8. Who was Pelagius, and who were sent to oppose his error?

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1. To what century does St. Patrick belong?
2. Where was he born?
3. Who seized him as a slave, and whither did they carry him?
4. How did he escape?
5. To what monastery did he repair?
6. Where did he receive holy orders, according to his "Confessions?"
7. To what country did he afterwards go and for what purpose? What success had he?

9. Where did he fix his metropolitan see?
10. Where and when did he die?
11. Who was St. Gildas? whither did he retire, and where did he die?
12. Of what works was he the author?
13. Who was his successor among our historians?
14. Where did St. Ninian fix his episcopal see, and when did he die?

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1. What was the form of government among the Britons?
2. What were the general features of the country, and what was its population?
3. What does Tacitus say of the Britons?
4. What were their laws, and their law of inheritance?
5. What was the title of the Roman governor?
6. What were the duties of the governors?
7. How did the Romans levy their taxes?

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1. With whom did the Britons traffic?
2. What proof have we of the Phœnicians trading with Britain? and how long before the Christian era?
3. What nation subsequently succeeded in sharing the commerce?
4. What were their exports?
5. Relate the lines of Ossian upon the dogs of Britain.
6. What were their imports?
7. What place had already become a great city?
8. How many vessels were then employed in the export of corn?
9. Had they the art of working in metals?—give the proof.
10. In what handicrafts did they excel?
11. What kind of money had they?
12. How did they cultivate their land?
13. Upon what did they principally live?
14. In what places did they preserve their corn?
15. Mention when, and where, some of their caverns were discovered, and what was found in them.
16. Give some account of the abodes of the Britons.
17. Was the country provided with any highways in the time of the Britons?
18. What is the old tradition on that subject?
19. What were the names of these highways?
20. To what nation do we principally owe the formation of the great roads?
21. How many routes are mentioned in the Itinerary of Antoninus?
22. Were the distances regularly marked, and by what?

1. For what were the Britons remarkable, and in what did they excel?
2. What did Julius Agricola say of the British youth?
3. What is the character given of the Britons by Tacitus?
4. How did they behave towards their parents and superiors and towards strangers?
5. What was their custom with their new-born infants?
6. Of what did their clothing consist?
7. Of what were their meals composed, and how many had they in the day?
8. In what manner did they conduct themselves during their repasts?
9. Of what were their vessels for eating and drinking composed?
10. Relate their modes of burying their dead.
11. What alteration took place after their conquest by the Romans with regard to their customs, manners, &c.?

BOOK II.

1. Name the principal Saxon chiefs.
2. Which was the first Saxon kingdom, and when was it established?
3. Which was the second Saxon kingdom, where and when was it founded, and by whom?
4. When was the kingdom of Wessex founded, and by whom?
5. What is related of King Arthur?
6. By whom and when was the kingdom of the East-Angles founded?
7. To what port did the great body of the Angles penetrate, and what were they called?
8. Where did the Britons make their last stand, and what was the fate of the battle?
9. How many kingdoms were erected by the Saxons, and by what name were they called?
10. Into how many did these seven merge shortly after, and what were their names?
11. Under what king did these three kingdoms unite into one?
12. Of these states what was the Lord Paramount called?
13. Who was the first Britwalda?
14. Who were the second, the third, and the fourth?
15. Who was the fifth, and how did he lose his life?
16. What did Penda do after the defeat and death of Edwin, and who fell in the battle that followed?
17. In what year did Oswald raise his banner, and what was the result of the battle that ensued?
18. Who was the sixth Britwalda, and what was his fate, and who was raised to the throne after his death?

19. What was the success of the battle fought between Penda and Oswy?

20. When was the kingdom of Northumbria divided, and what was the consequence of the division?

21. Who succeeded Oswy, and what country did he invade, and how did he meet his death?

22. Who reigned in Mercia in 737, and what vassal state re-asserted its independence and gained the victory?

23. When and by whom was the superiority of Mercia reasserted?

24. What did he do to secure his conquest, and by what name are the remains known?

25. When did Offa die, and what followed in his dominions?

26. Who occupied the throne of Wessex at the time of Offa's death?

27. Who had a better title to the throne, and to whose court did he flee?

28. What did Brithric do in consequence?

29. Whither did Egbert go, and how did he employ himself during his exile?

30. Who was the wife of Brithric, and of what crimes was she guilty?

31. Whither did she go when expelled the kingdom, and what became of her?

32. When Egbert received the news of Brithric's death, how did he proceed?

33. When did Egbert begin his reign, and how did he act?

34. In whose reign did the Danes begin to infest England?

35. What was the result of the battle between Egbert and the Danes?

36. Who succeeded Egbert, and when?

37. Where did Ethelwulf engage the Danes, and which side gained the victory?

38. To what city did he make a pilgrimage, and what did he found there?

39. In what year did he die, and who succeeded him?

40. How long did Ethelbald reign, and also Ethelbert?

41. Who succeeded Ethelbert?

42. What cruelties did the Danes commit during his reign?

43. What is related of the nuns of Coldingham?

44. What cruelties did they inflict upon St. Edmund?

45. Who was Alfred, and in what year was he born?

46. Where did he fight his first battle with the Danes, and what was the result?

47. To what place did he withdraw, and what is related of him during his retreat?

48. What instance is related of his charitable disposition during his abode in the island in which he took refuge?

49. What action did the Earl of Devonshire perform, and what was the result?
50. What did Alfred in consequence, and what was the result of the battle?
51. What did Alfred to secure the peace of his dominions?
52. When did he die, and how long did he reign?
53. How many battles did he fight with the Danes?
54. Who succeeded Alfred, and when did he die?
55. Who succeeded Edward, against whom did he wage war, and what success had he?
56. What tribute did Athelstan oblige the Welch kings to pay?
57. Who succeeded Athelstan, and in what year?
58. What is the character of Edmund, and what happened to him?
59. Who succeeded Edmund, and what is his character?
60. Who succeeded Edred, and what is his character?
61. What became of Ethelgiva?
62. What is the character of Edwy?
63. In what year did Edgar ascend the throne?
64. What is his character, and who was his chief adviser
65. What was remarkable in his reign?
66. Who were Elfrida and Ethelwold?
67. How long did Edgar reign, and who succeeded him?
68. Relate the character of Edward the Martyr, and his death.
69. Who succeeded him, and in what year?
70. Who invaded the kingdom during the reign of Ethelred, and what is his character?
71. What was his conduct upon the invasion of the Danes?
72. What noble instance of firmness occurred during this lamentable period?
73. Who was Ethelred's second wife, and to what claims did this alliance give a pretext?
74. Of what act of treachery was he guilty towards the Danes?
75. What was the consequence?
76. Who succeeded Ethelred, and when?
77. What was the cause of the death of Edmund Ironsides?
78. Name the Saxon kings from Egbert.

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1. Who first conceived the design of converting the Saxons?
2. What speech did Pope Gregory make upon seeing the Saxon slaves at Rome?
3. Where was the gospel first preached in England, and by whom?
4. What success had St. Augustine in Kent?
5. Relate the conversion of Edwin, and the speech of the high-priest Coiffi.
6. What act did Coiffi perform, and what followed?

7. Who was Aiden, and what nation did he convert?
8. To whom may the conversion of the East-Angles be chiefly ascribed?
9. Who converted the Mercians?
10. Which was the last Saxon kingdom converted to Christianity, and to whom was its conversion owing?
11. What remarkable act did St. Wilfrid perform?
12. What archbishoprics were erected by St. Augustine?
13. How many suffragan bishops were there in each?
14. Who held a conference with the British bishops, and what was the result?
15. By what title did the laity acquire the right of patronage?
16. What was the state of the church at this time?
17. Who distributed the dioceses into parishes?
18. Of what did the revenues of the church consist?
19. How were they divided, and applied?

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1. Which was the most ancient library, and who established it?
2. Who established the one at Weremouth?
3. Which was the most famous, and who gave us a catalogue of its contents?
4. What was their system of study?
5. Who were the principal learned men among the Saxons?
6. Give some account of St. Bennet Biscop, and his foundations.
7. Who was St. Aldhelm, and under whom did he study?
8. Who was Bede, and what is his most celebrated work?
9. Give some account of his last illness and death.
10. Where was Alcuin born, and under what prelate was he educated?
11. To whom did Alfred first owe his passion for learning?
12. Of what university is it said that Alfred was the founder?
13. How did Alfred divide and employ his time?
14. In what studies had he made considerable progress?
15. Under what difficulties did he pursue his studies, and fulfil his various duties, and what is to be learnt from his example?
16. Where was the chief seat of learning at this time?
17. Who was the glory of the age, and of Ireland?
18. Of what literary works was he the author?
19. Mention some other eminent Irishmen, and some of their literary works.

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1. What was the Wittenagamot, and who were its constituent members?
2. What were the proceedings in civil cases?
3. What was the proportional value of an oath in their judicature?

4. What were the proceedings in criminal cases?
5. What was required in the purgation by oath?
6. What was the ordeal by fire?
7. What was the ordeal by water?
8. Of what kind were their criminal laws?
9. Of what did the revenues of the king consist at first?
10. What was the rent of land by the laws of Ina?
11. What were the Saxon titles of rank?
12. How long did slavery continue, and into what classes were the slaves divided?
13. What remarkable law was passed at this time in favour of commerce, and by whom?
14. With what country was the commerce in slaves carried on at this time?
15. What curious account is given about the traffic of slaves in the biography of St. Walstan?
16. What effect had the preaching of St. Walstan?
17. What is said of the trade of Chester at this time?
18. Which are the ports noticed at this time?
19. What were their other exports and imports?
20. What were their principal coins?
21. Mention the places and dates of the coins dug up, and to whose reigns they belonged.
22. Mention the comparative value of different articles.
23. What was the state of agriculture?
24. Whose lands were the best cultivated?
25. What implements of husbandry had they?
26. What did their gardens produce?

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1. Who restored masonry in England, and introduced some of the arts connected with it?
2. What metals did they work in, and who among their artificers was the most highly regarded?
3. What were the acquirements of females at this period?
4. What were their musical instruments?
5. From whom was their sacred and other popular music chiefly borrowed?
6. How did they arrange the interior of their houses?
7. Of what did their household utensils chiefly consist?
8. What was their custom at meals?
9. Of what did the Saxon male costume consist?
10. What were the male ornaments?
11. What was the female costume?
12. How many meals a day had they, and of what did the greater portion consist?
13. What was their conduct towards strangers?
14. What were the personal qualities of the Anglo-Saxons?

15. Relate some of their customs and games.
16. How did they educate their children?
17. In what manner did they endeavour to ascertain the courage of their offspring?
18. How did they conduct their burials?
19. What is said of their language?

BOOK III.

1. Who was the first Danish King of England?
2. How did he govern, and what kingdoms did he conquer?
3. What remarkable rebuke did he give to his flatterers?
4. How many sons had he, and how were his kingdoms shared among them?
5. What treaty was made between the brothers?
6. What act of treachery did Harold commit?
7. When did Harold the Dane die, and who succeeded him?
8. How did he govern his people, and what was the cause of his death?
9. What is the character of Edward the Confessor?
10. Who attempted to invade the kingdom during his reign?
11. Who were his chief generals?
12. Relate the remarkable death of Earl Godwin.
13. What was the speech of Siward when he heard of the death of his son?
14. What remarkable building did Edward the Confessor erect?
15. How many competitors for the throne were there, and who succeeded him?
16. What were the first acts of Harold's reign?
17. Who was the first enemy he had to contend against?
18. By whom was Tosti encouraged and assisted?
19. What was the result of the battle betwixt the two brothers?
20. Who next invaded England, and in what year?
21. Relate the principal events of the battle between William and Harold.
22. To what causes may the Conquest be chiefly attributed?

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1. What acts of piety did Canute perform?
2. Who built Westminster Abbey?—to what saint and in what year was it dedicated?
3. Who were the principal law-makers among the Saxon kings?
4. When were the trials by ordeal legally prohibited?
5. What is the character of the Danes at this period?
6. What was the Danish costume?
7. What was the population at this period?
8. How many parish churches are said to have been in England at this period?

BOOK IV.

1. What period elapsed from the Norman conquest, until the restoration of the Saxon line?

2. Under what king was the Saxon line restored?

3. What oath did William take at his coronation?

4. How did he conduct himself at the beginning of his reign?

5. What policy nevertheless did he pursue?

6. What does Pictaviensis say of the riches and manufactures of England at this period?

7. Did the English attempt to recover their liberty?

8. What became of Edgar Atheling and his sister?

9. What act of cruelty did William commit?

10. What language was used at court in his reign?

11. Did he pass the remainder of his life happily?

12. How many sons had he, and what were their names?

13. What were their characters?

14. Relate what happened in the battle between Robert and his father.

15. What revenge did William take upon the innocent inhabitants upon account of the sarcasm of the King of France?

16. Relate the cause of William's death.

17. What is the general character of William?

18. When did he die, and who succeeded him?

19. Why did not Robert succeed to the throne before William II?

20. What was the conduct of Robert, and that of William, on the occasion?

21. What was the condition of Normandy at this period?

22. What happened at the siege of the fortress defended by Henry?

23. What was the speech of Robert upon Henry's demand of water?

24. Who was Malcolm? whom did he marry? and what was the issue of the battle betwixt him and William?

25. What were the Crusades, and what gave rise to them?

26. What part did Robert take in them, and how did William II. act?

27. Upon the insurrection in Normandy, how did William act?

28. Relate the circumstances and manner of William II.'s death.

29. What is his character?

30. Who succeeded William Rufus, and how did he commence his reign?

31. Whom did he marry?

32. How did Robert act, and what became of him?

33. What misfortune happened to Henry?

34. What was the immediate cause of his death?

35. How long did he reign? to whom did he leave his kingdom? and who succeeded him?

36. How did Matilda and Stephen act?
37. Who was Henry? and how did the dispute between him and Stephen terminate?
38. When did Stephen die, and who succeeded him?

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1. What was the policy of William the Conqueror with regard to ecclesiastical affairs?
2. Who was St. Wulstan?—relate his speech when he was ordered to resign his see.
3. How did the controversy between the Archbishops of Canterbury and York terminate?
4. What ordinances with regard to ecclesiastical affairs did William publish?
5. What may be remarked as to these orders?
6. Who was Lanfranc, and what is his character?
7. How did William II. act after the death of Lanfranc?
8. Who was St. Anselm, and of what see did he become archbishop?
9. Upon what conditions did he consent to be installed?
10. How did William II. act towards him?
11. What was Henry I.'s conduct in religious affairs?
12. How did Stephen act?

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1. What was the chief foundation of the Norman laws?
2. What were the principles of the Norman laws?
3. How did William the Conqueror ascertain the royal revenues? what was the result? what were purveyances?
4. What is said of the Saxon court of justice at this period?
5. How was justice administered?
6. What good effect resulted from the rigour of the government, and the tyranny of the nobles?

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1. In what class did the learning of this period exist?
2. What does Fitzstephen say of the London schools at this period?
3. What is said of Universities at this period?
4. What account does Peter of Blois give of the course of instruction at Cambridge at this period?
5. Into how many classes was literary and scientific knowledge divided, and what was the first?
6. What was the second, and how were the whole enumerated?
7. Who were some of our principal learned men at this period?
8. What is said of classical and mathematical sciences?
9. What did the science of medicine comprehend?

1. Which were the principal trading towns?
2. Their exports and imports?
3. What was the state of agriculture and of architecture at this period?
4. What castles did William Rufus build?
5. What was the mode of education among the Normans at this period?
6. What is said of their household comforts, &c.?
7. Of what did the Norman clothing consist?
8. What is the character of the Normans?—and what daily meal did they take, and at what hours?

BOOK V.

1. What was the conduct of Henry II. in the beginning of his reign?
2. Against whom did he make war?
3. Upon what conditions did he grant peace to the Welch?
4. Who reconciled Henry and Lewis of France?—and how was peace concluded?
5. Against what country did Henry now turn his thoughts?—and how did he attempt to justify the invasion?
6. What success had the English in Ireland?
7. Who was Strongbow?
8. For what reason did Henry so soon quit Ireland?—and what success had he against France and Scotland?
9. What became of his two sons, Henry and Geoffrey?
10. How many sons had he?
11. At what age did Henry die, and of what illness?
12. Who succeeded him?
13. Relate some of Richard's warlike actions in the Crusade.
14. What places did he conquer?—and what truce did he make with Saladin?
15. What misfortune befel him on his return?
16. How did his brother John act during his absence?
17. What war did he subsequently undertake?
18. What success had he, and how did he act towards the Bishop of Beauvais?
19. Relate the circumstance of his death.
20. What is his character, and who succeeded him.
21. Who was Arthur, why did he not succeed to the throne, and what became of him?
22. What war did John engage in, and what was the result?
23. Relate his dispute with the Pope, and its consequences.
24. What remarkable charter did John grant, and where did the commissioners meet?
25. How did John conduct himself afterwards?

26. What caused his death, and who succeeded him?
27. What was the state of the nation at the accession of Henry III.?
28. How did the Dauphin of France act, and what was the result?
29. What caused the discontents of the barons and people?
30. How did the barons act, and what were the proceedings of the Parliament called the Mad Parliament?
31. How did the knights of the shire act?
32. How did Edward, the king's son, proceed?
33. What was the result of the battle between Edward and Leicester?
34. How long did Henry III. reign, when did he die, and who succeeded him?
35. Against what nation did Edward first make war, and what was the result?
36. With what nation did he next interfere, and why?
37. What were the results of the war?
38. What Scottish hero signalized himself at this time?
39. Where was the battle fought between the Scotch and English, and what was the result?
40. What became of Wallace?
41. How did Edward proceed when Bruce assumed the crown of Scotland, and what was the result of the battle between Edward and Bruce?
42. When did Edward I. die, and who succeeded him?
43. What is the character of Edward, and how many sons and daughters had he?
44. What is the character of Edward II., and what was the cause of his misfortunes?
45. What favourites had he, and what became of them?
46. How did his queen act, and what became of the king?
47. When did he die, and who succeeded him?
48. What were the first acts of Edward III. on his assuming the reins of the government?
49. In what war did he soon after engage, and what were the results?
50. Against whom did he next make war, and what was his first great battle?
51. What followed, and what number of men did Philip of France oppose to him?
52. Relate the particulars of the battle of Cressy, as to the order of his army and their respective commanders.
53. How did Philip arrange his army?
54. Relate the chief particulars of the battle.
55. What principal French generals were killed
56. To what city did he lay siege and take?

57. Who invaded the English frontiers during Edward's absence in France?

58. What battle ensued, and what were the results?

59. What great battle next followed, and its results?

60. What is the character of Edward the Black Prince, and of what illness did he die, and at what age?

61. When did King Edward die, and who succeeded him?

62. What caused discontents in the nation?

63. Who headed the insurgents, and whither did they proceed?

64. What was King Richard's conduct towards the rebels?

65. What caused the misfortunes of Richard?—and relate the manner of his death, and the year he died.

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1. Who was the father of St. Thomas à Becket, and how and when did he become a slave?

2. Relate some particulars of the mother of St. Thomas à Becket.

3. What dignities did St. Thomas attain?

4. When King Henry II. resolved to get him consecrated archbishop, what speech did St. Thomas make?

5. For what causes did he incur the king's displeasure?

6. When St. Thomas referred his cause to the pope, how did the king behave?

7. Relate some particulars of his death.

8. What was the king's conduct upon the news of his death?

9. What dispute arose between John and the pope?

10. What treaty did John make with the pope?

11. What representation was sent to the pope concerning the grievances of the English church?

12. What bishops opposed the church of Rome in their proceedings?

13. What religious orders began to be established at this time?

14. What order was abolished, and what statute made upon that occasion?

15. What was the substance of the letter addressed to the pope by Edward I.?

16. Of what did the papal revenues in England consist, and what was the determination of Parliament upon them?

17. What were first-fruits, and how were they enforced

18. Give some account of Wycliffe and his doctrine.

19. What became of him, and what were his followers called?

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1. How did Henry II. regulate the affairs of justice?

2. Under whose reign was the city of London first divided into companies and corporations?

3. Who was called the English Justinian?

4. What renders this period particularly interesting, and how did it take place?

5. What statute, in conjunction with Magna Charta, forms the basis of the English constitution?
6. What was the statute of mortmain?
7. What was the conduct of the Commons under Edward II. and Edward III.?
8. What was the principal manufacture at this period?
9. What other considerable manufactures were there?
10. How was our domestic trade principally carried on at this period?
11. What were our coins at this time?
12. What was the state of the police?

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1. What was the state of agriculture and gardening at this period?
2. What was the style of architecture?
3. What was the progress in painting and sculpture?

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1. Give some account of the pomp and hospitality of this period.
2. How did the candidate for knighthood prepare himself?
3. At what period did chivalry decline, and when did it revive?
4. Who founded the order of the garter, and who was the first knight?
5. What was the dress of the ladies and gentlemen of this period?
6. What change took place in the language during the fourteenth century?
7. What poets flourished at this period?
8. Relate the first and second incidents.
9. Relate the third, fourth, and fifth.
10. Relate the three last ditto.

BOOK VI.

1. Who succeeded Richard II., and in what year?
2. In what wars did Henry IV. engage?
3. What occasioned the rebellion of Hotspur?
4. How did the son of the king behave in the battle?
5. What was the result of the battle?
6. How did Henry IV. govern after the defeat and death of his enemies?
7. When did Henry IV. die, and what is his character?
8. How many children had he, and what were their names?
9. Who succeeded Henry IV., and when?
10. What was Henry V.'s conduct while Prince of Wales?
11. What remarkable submission to the laws did he make?
12. What was his conduct after his accession?

13. Against whom did he make war, and near to what city did he land?
14. What followed?
15. Where was the battle fought between him and the French?
16. Relate some particulars of the engagement.
17. In what situation was France at this period?
18. What naval engagement took place, and what were the results?
19. Whom did he marry, and what treaty was entered into?
20. What is his general character, and in what year did he die?
21. Who was Sir Owen Tudor, and whom did he marry?
22. Who succeeded Henry V., and when?
23. Did the wars with France continue, and with what success at the beginning?
24. Who was the Maid of Orleans, and by what means were the French soldiers prepared to believe in her mission from heaven?
25. What victories did she gain, and where was she taken prisoner?
26. What cruelties were inflicted upon her according to the barbarous custom of the age?
27. What is the character of Henry VI.?
28. To whom was he married, and how did the queen and her party act towards the Duke of Gloucester?
29. What insurrection broke out, and who headed it?
30. What became of Jack Cade?
31. Where was the first battle fought between the Yorkists and Lancastrians?
32. What was the emblem of the House of York, and what of the House of Lancaster?
33. How long did the contest last between the two houses?—how many battles were fought, and what number of lives were lost?
34. What was the final issue of the contest?
35. Who succeeded Henry VI.?
36. What became of Margaret, her son, and the king?

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1. In whose reign was the first example of capital execution for heresy?—and what were the reasons for passing the act?
2. What did the act recite?
3. Relate particulars of Sir J. Oldcastle, and what befel him.
4. How did Henry V. conduct himself in ecclesiastical affairs?

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1. What does Philip de Comines say of the constitution of England at this period?
2. What two particular statutes were enacted in this reign
3. What right did the Commons also establish at this time?
4. What did the Commons obtain in the reign of Henry V.

5. What right did the Commons exercise in the reign of Henry VI.?
6. What salaries had the judges at this period?
7. How was foreign trade conducted at this period?
8. Which was the principal emporium at this period?
9. What were the coins of this period?

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1. What was the style of architecture?—and mention some specimens.
2. At what time, and for whom, were playing-cards introduced?
3. When was the art of printing introduced, and who were the first printers in England?
4. What is remarkable in the manners of the time?
5. How many meals a day were taken, and at what hours?

BOOK VII.

1. Who succeeded Henry VI., and when?
2. What is the character of Edward IV.?
3. Against whom did he make war, and with what success?
4. When did he die, and who succeeded him?
5. Who was the Duke of Gloucester, and how did he act towards his nephews?
6. How did he act towards Hastings?
7. What insurrections happened during the reign of Richard III.?
8. What became of Buckingham?
9. Where was the battle fought between Richard and Henry of Richmond, and what was the result?
10. When did the union of the two houses take place?
11. What princess did Henry marry?
12. Who was Lambert Simnel, and what became of him?
13. Who was Perkin Warbeck, and whom did he marry?
14. What insurrections happened in this reign?
15. What became of Perkin Warbeck and the Earl of Warwick?
16. To whom did the king marry his eldest son?
17. When Arthur died, whom did Catharine marry?
18. Who was Margaret, and whom did she marry?
19. Who were Empson and Dudley, and how did they act?
20. Relate the character of Henry VIII. at his accession.
21. Against what nation did Henry make war?
22. What was the result of the war?
23. Give some account of the battle of Flodden-field.
24. For what pretended cause did Henry seek to divorce his wife, Catharine, and what was the real cause?
25. Who were his chief advisers?
26. What became of Wolsey, and what was his speech on his death-bed?

27. Who succeeded to the Archbishopric of Canterbury?
28. When Henry divorced Catharine, whom did he next marry?
29. What became of Anne Boleyn, and who was Henry's third wife?
30. What became of Jane Seymour, and who was Henry's fourth wife?
31. What became of Ann of Cleves, and who was Henry's fifth wife?
32. What became of Cromwell, and what was his declaration on the scaffold?
33. What became of Catharine Howard?
34. Who was his last wife, and what became of her?
35. What children did Henry leave, and who succeeded him?
36. How old was Edward VI. when he succeeded to the throne?
37. Who was the Duke of Somerset, and what became of him?
38. How did Northumberland act after the Duke of Somerset's death?
39. To whom did Edward leave his crown, and by whose suggestion?
40. How did the judges act on the occasion?
41. Relate the particulars of Edward VI.'s death.
42. Who succeeded Edward VI., and when?
43. How did Northumberland proceed after Edward's death?
44. What became of Northumberland?
45. How did the queen's ministers proceed to strengthen their power?
46. How did the Reformers act?
47. Who put themselves at the head of the rebels, and in what parts of the country?
48. What became of them?
49. What became of Lady Jane and her husband?
50. Where was Mary married to Philip of Spain, and what is to be remarked in the marriage contract?
51. What remarkable city was lost in her reign, and what did the queen say upon hearing the news?
52. What is the character of Mary, and what do the Protestant writers, Collier, Camden, Echard, and Fuller, say of her?
53. Who succeeded Mary, and in what year?
54. Relate some particulars of Mary, Queen of Scots.
55. Whom did she first marry, and at what age was she left a widow?
56. Who was her second husband, and what offspring had she?
57. What was the first project of the Reformers?
58. What murder was the consequence?
59. Whom did Mary marry next?
60. How did the conspirators proceed?
61. Who commanded the rebels, and what was the issue of the battle?

62. What became of the Queen of Scots after the battle?
63. What became of the Duke of Norfolk?
64. Relate some particulars of Babington's plot.
65. How did Elizabeth's ministers act towards the Queen of Scots at her trial?
66. What was Elizabeth's conduct towards Mary?
67. What does Davison relate in his justification?
68. How did Mary conduct herself, when informed of the sentence against her?
69. To whom was the order for her execution delivered, and how did they behave towards her?
70. What said the Earl of Kent, upon her refusal to receive the Dean of Peterborough?
71. How did Mary conduct herself at the place of execution?
72. How did Elizabeth appear to receive the news of her death?
73. Who made war upon Elizabeth, and for what reason?
74. What was the number of Philip's forces, and what was the Spanish fleet called?
75. How did the Catholics conduct themselves during the attempt at invasion, and in the fleet, and how many priests suffered death?
76. Who were the British commanders?
77. What became of the Spanish fleet?
78. What favourite of the Queen was made Governor of Ireland?
79. How did he conduct the war in Ireland?
80. How did Essex act under the queen's displeasure?
81. What became of him?
82. Relate the particulars of the death of Elizabeth.

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1. What was the state of ecclesiastical affairs when Henry VIII. came to the throne?
2. What were the principal causes of the separation of the English church from the see of Rome?
3. Who were the principal contrivers, and how did they proceed?
4. What bill did Gardiner and Tunstall get passed in Parliament?
5. Upon what pretence did Henry seize the abbeys and monasteries?
6. What decree was made in consequence?
7. What consequences followed the dissolution of the monasteries?
8. Upon the death of Henry how did the Reformers act?
9. How did Mary act in ecclesiastical affairs?
10. How many were put to death for heresy in Mary's reign?
11. Relate the circumstances of the death of Cranmer.
12. How did Elizabeth conduct herself upon her accession?
13. What arguments were used to induce Elizabeth to establish the Reformation?
14. Relate particulars of the compilation of the Book of Common Prayer.

15. What speeches were made against it?
16. Who among the bishops took the oath of supremacy?
17. What punishments were inflicted upon those who refused to take it?
18. How did they attempt to unite the Reformers, and with what success?

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1. What was the cause of the people's want of resistance to Henry's tyranny?
2. What amount of treasure did Henry leave to his son?
3. How were the laws administered under Henry VIII.?
4. What arbitrary tribunal was established under Elizabeth, and how many Catholics suffered death during her reign, for their religion?

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1. What was the literature of this period?
2. Who were the principal learned men of this age?
3. What was the state of agriculture and gardening at this time?
4. What fruits were introduced into England at this time?
5. What vegetables, and from whence?
6. What was the style of ecclesiastical architecture?
7. What of domestic architecture?
8. What encouragement did painting meet with?—and by whom?
9. Who were the principal poets of this age?

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1. What was the state of trade at this period?
2. What remarkable geographical discoveries were made at this period, and by whom?
3. What was the state of manufactures at this period?
4. What were the coins of this period?
5. What great company received its formation, and in what year?
6. Who built the Royal Exchange?
7. What was the state of the navy at the death of Queen Elizabeth?

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1. What were the domestic arrangements at this period?
2. What was the costume at this time?
3. Of what were their dinners composed, and how were the guests arranged at table?
4. What is said of Queen Elizabeth's fondness for dress, and the state of her wardrobe?
5. When was tobacco introduced, and by whom?
6. What was the chief amusement of this time?

BOOK VIII.

1. Who succeeded Elizabeth, and in what year?
2. What conspiracy was discovered in the beginning of this reign, and what was its object?
3. Who were the originators, and what became of them?
4. What still more atrocious plot was brought to light?
5. How did it originate?—mention some of the conspirators.
6. How did they commence their proceedings?
7. What appears to have been the intention in sending the letter to Lord Monteagle, and how did the ministry proceed in consequence?
8. What became of the conspirators?
9. Had James any favourites, and who was the first, and what is his character?
10. Relate some particulars of Sir Walter Raleigh, and his misfortunes and death.
11. Relate particulars of King James's son, Charles, and whom did he marry?
12. What war did James undertake, and what was the result?
13. How long did James reign, and at what age, and of what disorder, did he die?
14. Who succeeded James, and when?
15. What taxes did Charles levy, and under what pretence?
16. Relate particulars of Buckingham's expeditions.
17. Relate some particulars of the dissensions between Charles and the House of Commons.
18. What became of Buckingham?
19. Whom did Charles choose for prime minister?
20. Relate some particulars of Charles's proceedings, at this time, in levying taxes, &c.
21. Mention particulars of ship-money and Hampden.
22. What caused the Scotch to have recourse to arms?
23. How did Charles now proceed with his Parliament?
24. Relate particulars of the death of Strafford.
25. What caused the insurrection in Ireland, and what was the conduct of the Commons?
26. How did Charles proceed in consequence, and who were accused of high treason by the attorney-general?
27. What was the immediate cause of the civil war?
28. What was the name given to Charles's army, and why?
29. Where was the first battle fought, and what were the general features of the first campaign?
30. What success had Charles in the second campaign?
31. Name the battles of the second campaign.
32. What step did Charles take after the battle of Naseby?
33. Who delivered the king to the English Parliament, and for what?

34. How did the Parliament act when they had the king in their power?
35. How did Cromwell and the army proceed?
36. How did the Parliament act when they perceived their error?
37. What was the Parliament left by the army called?
38. Relate some particulars of Charles's trial.
39. What did the king do after sentence was pronounced?
40. What did he say at the place of execution?
41. Who became Protector, and how long did he continue so?
42. What did the Commons proceed to vote?
43. What other steps did they take?
44. What caused the Scots to call over Prince Charles?
45. How did Cromwell conduct himself in Ireland?
46. How did Cromwell act in Scotland?
47. Relate some particulars of the battle of Worcester.
48. Relate some particulars of Charles II.'s adveatures after the battle and who assisted him?
49. How did he escape?
50. Where did he embark, and where did he land?
51. After the flight of Charles, in what relation was the nation placed with other powers?
52. Against what nation did the Parliament declare war, and what was the result?
53. How did Cromwell proceed to acquire the sovereign power?
54. In what manner did he act to dissolve the Long Parliament?
55. What was the next Parliament called, and why?
56. What city was put into the hands of Cromwell, by whom, and for what reason?
57. Relate some of the exploits of Blake.
58. What is said of the usurper, notwithstanding his success?
59. Of what malady did he die, and at what age?
60. Who succeeded Oliver Cromwell, and how did he and his brother Henry act?
61. What was the conduct of General Monk at this time?
62. What did Charles II. propose in the letter sent by him to the council?
63. Who took the command of the fleet, and where did they land?
64. When did Charles II. begin his reign, and in what manner?
65. What became of the regicides?
66. What is the character of Charles II.?
67. In what war did he engage, and what was the result?
68. By what name was Charles's ministry known, and what was the consequence of their advice?
69. What was the result of the battle between the Dutch and the English, and what was the conduct of the French?
70. What was the cause of the discontents in Scotland?
71. What success had the Scots?

72. Relate particulars of the death of Sharp, and the subsequent proceedings of the Scotch.
73. Who was Shaftsbury, and how did he act?
74. How did Charles proceed with the Presbyterians?
75. Who formed a conspiracy to dethrone the king?
76. What other plot was formed shortly after, and what became of the conspirators?
77. To whom did Charles marry his niece?
78. In what faith did Charles die, and what clergyman attended his death-bed?
79. Who succeeded Charles, and when?
80. What became of the notorious informer, Titus Oates, &c.?
81. Who attempted to invade the kingdom, and what was the result of the battle?
82. What was the cause of the misunderstanding between James II. and the Parliament?
83. By whose advice did the king act?
84. What proclamation did the king publish, and what order did he subjoin to it?
85. Who disobeyed the order, and what was the consequence?
86. Who had kept up a secret correspondence with the traitors around the king, and with what force did he invade the country?
87. Who was the admiral of the English fleet, and how did he act?
88. When did the Prince of Orange land, and who joined him?
89. How did James proceed at this conjuncture?
90. How did the peers and others act after the flight of the king?
91. What was at the end agreed upon, and when and where did James die?

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1. How did the ministers of James I. act towards the Catholics?
2. What use did their enemies make of the gunpowder plot to calumniate the Catholics?
3. What was the situation of the Catholics among themselves?
4. Who was the last Catholic national bishop, and when did he die?
5. Who was their first archpriest, and until what year did the office continue?
6. Who was the first vicar apostolic, and how did he proceed?
7. When did he die, and who succeeded him?
8. Who was the principal agent in founding the English seminaries in foreign states?
9. What penal act passed in the second year of Charles I.?
10. What was the condition of the Catholics under Cromwell?
11. For what reason was the act of uniformity again enforced?
12. Relate some particulars of Oates's plot.
13. How did the Parliament proceed in that affair?

14. How was Oates treated, and what sort of evidence did he invent?
15. What was the main design of these plotters?
16. What persons suffered death in consequence
17. What new perjurer appeared, and to what did he depose?
18. What plot was next contrived, and who was the accuser?
19. What penal acts were now passed?
20. What was the first step taken by James II. on church affairs?
21. What was his second proceeding?
22. What did he next do, and what completed the popular discontent?

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1. In what reign were triennial Parliaments and the *Habeas Corpus* Act established?
2. When were the North American colonies planted?
3. In what reign were copper halfpence and farthings coined?—and how had retail business been carried on previously?

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1. Who was the chief glory of literature at this period?
2. What great chemist and philosopher did this age produce?
3. What celebrated society was established in the reign of Charles II.?
4. What is said of the state of agriculture at this period?
5. What famous architect lived at this period?

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1. What was the condition of the English gentry under James I.?
2. What particular inventions were made at this time?
3. When was the General Post Office established, also the Bank of England?
4. When were coffee and tea first introduced?
5. When were pendulum clocks first made, and by whom?
6. What dreadful pestilence happened?—in what year?—where
7. In what year did the great fire of London happen?
8. What park was planted, and made public, by Charles II.?

BOOK IX.

1. How did James II. act upon William's accession?
2. Relate particulars of James's landing, and the siege he undertook?
3. How did William's troops act at Carrickfergus?
4. Where was the great battle fought betwixt James and William?
5. Relate the events of the battle, and James's exclamation.
6. What was said by O'Regan when James deserted his army?

7. What were the names of the generals on both sides?
8. What battle did William's troops gain, and into what city did the troops retreat?
9. Relate the events of the siege of Limerick, and the terms of capitulation.
10. What acts of barbarity were perpetrated in Scotland?
11. What tardy assistance did the French give to James?
12. Relate some particulars of the battle off La Hogue, and James's exclamation.
13. Relate some particulars of James after the battle, and his death.
14. How long did the war with France continue after the death of James, and what was the treaty of peace called?
15. How did the Commons act after the treaty of peace?
16. When did William die, and who succeeded him, and in what year?
17. Against whom was war declared immediately after the accession of Anne, and by what powers?
18. Who was appointed generalissimo of the allied armies?
19. Relate some of his successes in the first and second campaigns.
20. Relate particulars of the campaign of 1704, to the defeat of the French at Donawert.
21. Relate particulars of the battle of Blenheim.
22. Mention the names of the French generals opposed to Marlborough in these campaigns.
23. What strong fortification was taken by the navy, and by what admiral and general?
24. How was the war carried on in Spain, and who commanded the English?
25. Relate some particulars of the battle of Ramilies.
26. What caused a desire for peace amidst these brilliant victories?
27. What great event of internal policy took place in this reign?
28. What other battles took place before the conclusion of peace, and what was their success?
29. Relate some particulars of the last campaign of Marlborough.
30. Give a general summary of Marlborough's actions.
31. When was peace concluded, and what were the principal articles?
32. When did Anne die, and who succeeded her?

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1. What epithets were given to the supporters of the house of Stuart, and the house of Hanover?
2. What severe act was passed at this time?
3. What rebellion took place in the reign of George I.?
4. What epithet was given to the son of James II.?

5. What became of the young Prince James?
6. What noblemen were executed, who escaped, and what punishment was inflicted upon the remainder?
7. What remarkable alliance was formed, and what were the conditions?
8. What war ensued, and what was its success?
9. What other attempt was made by the friends of the Pretender, and what was the result?
10. Of what malady did George I. die, in what year, and who succeeded him?
11. What was the origin of the war with Spain?
12. Relate some particulars of the expedition against the Spaniards?
13. Trace the origin of the renewal of war on the Continent until the death of Augustus of Poland.
14. Relate further particulars until the death of the Emperor Charles VI.
15. Relate further particulars until the sending a body of English troops to the assistance of the Queen of Hungary.
16. Who commanded the British, and with what success?
17. How was the war carried on in Italy?
18. How was the war carried on in the Netherlands?
19. Relate the attempt of the Pretender in 1745, and the battle that followed.
20. What were his subsequent proceedings?
21. How did the victors behave?
22. What became of the Pretender?
23. Where was peace concluded?
24. When did Frederic Prince of Wales die?
25. What was the cause of the renewal of war?
26. Relate some particulars of this war.
27. Upon what account was Admiral Byng shot?
28. What fresh alliance was entered into?
29. What new combination was the consequence?
30. How was the war carried on in the East Indies?
31. What cruelties were committed upon the British prisoners by the Nabob of Bengal, and what became of him?
32. How was the war carried on in America until the end of 1758?
33. Relate particulars of the taking of Quebec.
34. How was the war carried on in Germany until the death of the Duke of Marlborough?
35. Who took the command of the British troops?
36. Relate particulars of the battle of Minden.
37. Describe some of the great efforts made by the English at this period.
38. When did George II. die, and who succeeded him?

39. When were proposals of peace made, and how did they terminate?

40. What took place in Portugal?

41. What success had the British arms in the East and West Indies?

42. Sum up the success of the British arms at the conclusion of the war, and what was the debt of England?

43. What act of momentous consequence passed in the year 1765?

44. Relate some particulars that led to the war with the British North American colonies, and the repeal of the Stamp Act.

45. What was the great subject of dispute between the mother country and her colonies?

46. Where was the first battle, and how did it terminate?

47. How did the Congress proceed, and who was their general-in-chief?

48. How did the Americans proceed in their attempt on Canada and its capital?

49. Mention particulars of the army under General Howe.

50. Mention particulars of the expedition against Charles Town, and the result.

51. What declaration did the Americans publish, and when?

52. What proceedings were carried on, on the Lake Champlain, and what other actions took place?

53. How did Washington proceed to rouse the drooping spirits of the Americans?

54. How did France and Spain act at this juncture?

55. With what success did the campaign of 1777 commence?

56. What was the result of General Burgoyne's proceedings?

57. What action was fought at sea, and who were the commanders on each side?

58. Who was Paul Jones, and what actions did he perform?

59. How was the war carried on in the West Indies?

60. Who joined the confederacy against England at this time?

61. Relate some particulars of the naval transactions under Sir James Wallace.

62. Also under Sir Charles Hardy.

63. What famous siege was begun by the Spaniards?

64. What naval actions took place at the close of 1779, and the beginning of 1780?

65. Who joined the enemies of Great Britain at this time, and what was their confederacy called?

66. What were the naval operations in 1781?

67. What was the success in the East Indies?

68. What naval actions took place in the West Indies, and who were the admirals?

69. What operations were carried on, on the continent of America?

70. Relate particulars of the expedition of Lord Cornwallis.

71. Relate particulars of the action between Rodney and the Count de Grasse.

72. What ships did Sir Samuel Hood and Admiral Barrington capture?

73. Relate particulars of the siege of Gibraltar until the 13th of September.

74. Relate the subsequent proceedings of the siege.

75. How did the Americans act after this?

76. When were preliminaries of peace signed, and between what powers?

77. Upon comparing the event of the war with the powers of Europe, with what power was the balance of success?

78. Upon what account did the ministers order an augmentation of forces in 1787?

79. What was the cause of disputes between England and Spain in 1790?

80. Who made war upon our possessions in the East Indies, and by whom instigated?

81. What were the principal causes of the revolution that broke out in France?

82. What were the ostensible grounds of quarrel between England and the revolutionists of France?

83. What European powers formed a confederacy against the French, and who commanded the British troops?

84. Relate particulars of the naval battle of the 1st of June.

85. What happened in Holland in 1796?

86. Relate particulars of the battle off Cape St. Vincent.

87. Relate particulars of the battle off Camperdown.

88. What islands did the English take?

89. What uncommon occurrence took place in the April of this year? and mention some particulars.

90. State the result of the invasion of Ireland in December.

91. What French general invaded Egypt? and state some particulars.

92. How did Buonaparte proceed after the surrender of Malta?

93. Relate particulars of the battle of the Nile.

94. What important consequences resulted from it?

95. Relate particulars of the second attempted invasion of Ireland.

96. What naval action took place in their attempt, and what was the name of the English admiral?

97. What was the result of the invasion of Holland by the Duke of York?

98. What valuable Dutch colony was taken in the West Indies?

99. What success had the British arms in India?

100. Relate particulars of the siege of Acre by Buonaparte.

101. Where did Buonaparte proceed after raising the siege?

102. What confederacy did he succeed in forming against England, after his return to France?

103. Relate particulars of the attack on Copenhagen, and for what cause was it attacked?

104. Relate particulars of the battle of Alexandria.

105. When was peace concluded, and where?

106. What were its conditions?

107. How did Buonaparte act during the treaty?

108. What conspiracy was formed against the government at this time?

109. What were the causes of the renewal of war?

110. How did the First Consul act?

111. How did the English prepare for it?

112. What islands were taken in the West Indies?

113. What success had Great Britain in the East?

114. What naval action took place in the East Indies?

115. What European power joined France in 1804, and what naval affair took place in consequence?

116. What policy did Buonaparte pursue at this time?

117. Relate particulars of the disastrous campaign of the Austrians.

118. How was the war carried on in Italy?

119. Relate particulars of the battle of Trafalgar.

120. Relate particulars of the battle of Maida.

121. Relate particulars of the battle of Jena.

122. What place was taken in Africa, and by whom?

123. What place was taken in South America, and the result?

124. What European powers made peace with Buonaparte in 1807, and upon what conditions?

125. What Dutch island was taken, and by whom?

126. What place in South America, and by whom?

127. How did England proceed with Denmark, and why?

128. What island at the mouth of the Elbe was taken by England?

129. What treaty was made between France and Spain at this time, and for what object?

130. How did the French proceed in Spain in 1808?

131. What was the consequence of their proceedings?

132. How did Great Britain act, as to Portugal?

133. Who was the British general, and what victory did he gain?

134. What convention was made?

135. Relate particulars of General Moore's invasion of Spain?

136. Relate some particulars of the battle of Corunna.

137. Who commanded the army sent to Portugal in 1809, and how did he proceed?

138. Relate some particulars of the battle of Talavera.

139. How did Lord Wellington proceed after the action?

140. How did the war proceed in Germany?

141. Who commanded the Austrians, and what city was taken by Buonaparte?

142. Relate particulars of the battle of Wagram.

143. Relate particulars of the expedition to Walcheren.

144. What was the state of Spain in 1810?

145. Mention particulars of the campaign in Portugal.

146. What islands were taken from the French and Dutch in the West and East Indies, &c.?

147. Mention particulars of the campaign of 1811 in Portugal, until the taking of Almeida.

148. Relate particulars of the battle for the relief of Badajos.

149. Relate particulars of the battle of Baresa.

150. What island was taken from the Dutch?

151. How was the campaign carried on in Spain in 1812?

152. What strong places did Lord Wellington capture?

153. Relate particulars of the battle of Salamanca.

154. What other nation declared war against Great Britain? and what were the first military proceedings?

155. Relate particulars of the proceedings at sea.

156. Relate some particulars of the invasion of Russia.

157. Where was the first great battle fought?

158. Where was the next fought, and what great city did the French take possession of?

159. What did the Russians in consequence?

160. Relate some particulars of the retreat of Buonaparte.

161. What was the loss of the French in this campaign?

162. Relate the proceedings of Lord Wellington in May, 1813.

163. What strong fort was taken in the mean time?

164. When did Lord Wellington enter France, and what ensued?

165. How did Buonaparte act at this time?

166. What nation did England subsidize?

167. Relate particulars of the battle of Dresden.

168. What French general surrendered, and what was the amount of his army?

169. Relate particulars of the battle of Leipzic.

170. What French marshal surrendered with his army?

171. What did the Dutch do at this time?

172. Relate some particulars of the invasion of Canada by the Americans.

173. What action was fought at sea, and with what result?

174. How did the allies proceed in 1814?

175. How did Wellington proceed?

176. Relate particulars of the taking of Paris.

177. What treaty was made in consequence with Buonaparte?

178. When did Louis XVIII. enter Paris, and what were the principal articles of the treaty made with him?

179. Give some account of the war in America, and the death of Ross.

180. Also of the naval operations on the lakes, and what next took place.

181. How did Buonaparte act at this time?

182. What did Ney promise upon the news of the landing in Buonaparte, and how did he act?

183. How did the allies proceed in consequence?

184. Who took the command of the English and foreign troops of Belgium, and who commanded the Prussians?

185. Relate particulars of Buonaparte's attacks on the Prussians also of Ney's attack on the British.

186. Mention the position of the British on the 17th of June.

187. When did the battle of Waterloo begin? and mention particulars till the advance of the Prussians.

188. What did Buonaparte do when he saw the Prussians advancing, and what was the result of the battle?

189. Relate the amount of loss on each side.

190. How did Buonaparte act after the battle?

191. How did Murat act, and what became of him?

192. What troops entered Paris, and when did Louis XVIII. ascend the throne of France?

193. What action at sea closed the war with America?

194. Relate proceedings in India, also in Ceylon.

195. When was the treaty with France and the Allies signed, and on what conditions?

196. Against whom did England send a fleet, and what are the particulars of the engagement?

197. When did George III. die, and who succeeded him?

198. What took place at the African settlement of Sierra Leone?

199. Mention particulars of the war in the East.

200. What was the Congress at Verona called, and for what purpose did it meet?

201. Who invaded Spain in 1824?

202. Relate some particulars of the transactions in Portugal in 1826.

203. Mention particulars of the battle of Navarino.

204. When did the Duke of York die?

205. When did George IV. die, and who succeeded him?

206. Mention particulars of the insurrection in Paris, and also in Belgium.

207. What ministry resigned, and who succeeded them?

208. Mention some particulars of the Canadian affairs.

209. When did William IV. die, and who succeeded him?

210. When did Her Majesty Queen Victoria begin to reign?

211. What was the substance of her speech on the opening of the new Parliamentary session?

212. Relate particulars of the Rebellion in Upper Canada, also in Lower Canada.

213. Relate particulars of the war in India to the flight of Dost Mahommed.

214. Mention particulars of the murder of Sir A. Burnes, and subsequent event to the destruction of the British army at the Koord Pass.

215. Relate the re-conquest of Ghisne and Cabul to the proclamation of Lord Ellenborough.

216. State the victories in Scinde, and under what General they were accomplished.

217. Who succeeded Lord Ellenborough as Governor General, and what great battle did he gain?

218. What was the cause of the war with China, and who was Captain Elliot?

219. Relate the principal event of the war to the truce, and the amount of the indemnity paid by China.

220. Did the truce last long?—and what was the result of the renewal of hostilities?

221. What occurred in Syria, who was the British Commander, and what was the result of the war?

222. What occurred in India on the 18th of June, 1848?

223. Relate particulars of the war in Africa, and the name of the British commander.

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1. How were Catholics treated in King William's reign, and what bill was enacted against them?

2. How were they situated during the reigns of Anne, George I., and George II.?

3. What was their situation at the beginning of the reign of George III.?

4. For the repeal of what penalties was the bill passed in favour of the Catholics in 1778?

5. What resulted from it?

6. Mention particulars of the riot in Scotland.

7. What riots took place in 1780, and where?

8. Who was at the head of the mob?

9. Mention some particulars of their conduct on the 2nd of June, and subsequent days.

10. What became of Lord George Gordon?

11. How did the Catholics act after the riots?

12. Relate the first five grievances in the memorial presented by them to Mr. Pitt.

13. Relate the next five grievances.

14. Relate the next five grievances.

15. Relate the last two grievances.

16. What three questions were sent to the foreign Universities, and what answers did they return?

17. Relate the subsequent proceedings of the Catholics in the year 1789, to the copy of the bill laid before the Parliament.

18. Relate the further particulars, including the synod held at Hammersmith.

19. What were the next proceedings of the bishops and the committee?

20. Who were the vicars apostolic at this period?

21. When did the union with Ireland take place?

22. What was said to have prevented the fulfilment of the promises of the Government on that occasion?

23. What act was passed in 1817 in favour of Catholics?

24. What bill passed in 1822 in favour of the Catholics?

25. What bill passed in 1826 in favour of the Dissenters and Catholics?

26. Give some account of the proceedings in Ireland.

27. Under whose ministry was the Emancipation Bill passed?

28. What is the material article of the new oath to be taken by Catholics?

29. Mention the speech of the Duke of Wellington on the second reading of the Emancipation Bill?

30. How did Mr. O'Connell proceed after the passing of the bill?

31. How did ministers proceed as to the Irish Church Establishment?

32. Relate particulars on the debate for granting £30,000 to the Catholic College of Maynooth.

33. What did Sir James Graham say upon the subject?

34. What was the motion of Mr. Ward, and the speech of Mr. Macaulay upon the same subject?

35. Who supported the bill in the House of Lords, and what was the result?

36. Who brought forward the motion about the secular Colleges in Ireland, and by whom was it opposed?

37. What did Sir Robert Inglis call the bill, what Catholic member protested against it, and what was the result?

38. What was granted for the building of the Colleges, and how much for their annual maintenance?

39. What rescript was received from His Holiness in October 1847?

40. What became of the bills brought in relating to Catholic charities, and for the repeal of the penal enactments?

41. What were the proceedings of the Catholic Institute with regard to the government grant, and how did Lord John Russell act?

42. What bill did the Marquis of Lansdowne bring in and carry in February, 1848, and when was Parliament prorogued?

—

1. What two great evils did the intrigues of the Whigs and Tories, &c., cause?

2. What bill was brought in to remedy them?

3. Relate some particulars of the South Sea scheme
4. Who was prime minister at the accession of George II.?
5. Who was prime minister at the death of George II.?
6. At what amount was the revenue of the king fixed?
7. Why did Mr. Pitt resign?
8. Who was Mr. Wilkes, and what took place in his regard?
9. What distinguished the session of 1771?
10. Mention some particulars of the bill brought in for keeping the succession clear.
11. What material alteration was made in the criminal law in the session of 1772?
12. In what year was the coalition ministry formed, and who were the principal parties?
13. What remarkable financial measure took place in 1786?
14. In what year was the act to abolish the slave trade passed
15. When was the Prince of Wales married, and to whom?
16. When did the union with Ireland take place?
17. What two great statesmen died in 1806?
18. When did the total abolition of the slave trade take place?
19. When was the Prince of Wales made Regent, and why?
20. When, and in what manner, was the administration deprived of Mr. Percival?
21. Who constituted the leading members of the new ministry?
22. Mention particulars of the riots in Nottinghamshire, Lancashire, &c.
23. Mention some particulars of the Princess of Wales in 1814.
24. What was the expenditure of the kingdom in 1815?
25. What happened to the Princess Charlotte, and to the Queen?
26. Mention some particulars of the agitated state of the country at this time, until the meeting at Manchester.
27. Mention particulars of the meeting at Manchester.
28. What acts were passed in consequence?
29. What conspiracy was formed at this time?
30. Relate some particulars of Queen Caroline at this time.
31. What was the result of the investigation into her conduct?
32. Who were her official defenders?
33. Relate particulars of her death.
34. Mention some particulars of her funeral procession.
35. How was George IV. received in Ireland?
36. For what particular event was the year signalized?
37. When did the Duke of York die, and of what illness?
38. What great orator died at this time?
39. Relate some particulars of the Reform Bill brought in by Lord John Russell.
40. When was the Royal assent given to the Reform Bill?
41. What caused the resignation of the Earl of Ripon, Lord Stanley, &c.?
42. What further changes took place, and why?

43. What occasioned the breaking up of the ministry?
44. Relate particulars after the meeting of the new Parliament, and who were the new ministers?
45. What bills did the Melbourne ministry introduce?
46. Upon what subject did the first session of Parliament deliberate in the House of Lords?
47. What was moved and agreed to in the Commons, and what bills were passed?—also what great financial measure, and when did it come into operation, &c.?
48. When was the Income re-enacted?
49. What remarkable trial took place in Ireland, and what verdict passed?
50. How did Mr. O'Connell proceed, and with what success?
51. What remarkable disturbances took place, where, and under what pretences?
52. For what reason were Cabinet councils held in November, 1845?
53. What Prime Minister resigned?—who attempted to form a new ministry, and who was reinstated?
54. How did the new ministry proceed?
55. Mention some particulars of the Railway expenditure, &c.
56. What was the amount of the revenue in 1845, and what the expenditure?

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1. What effect had the revocation of the edict of Nantz on trade in this country?
2. Mention some particulars of our commerce with India and America.
3. What were the exports to India, and what the imports from it?
4. What does England export to Africa, and what are the returns?
5. Give some account of the Duke of Bridgewater's Canal.
6. Also of the Railways.
7. What was the number of merchant vessels belonging to England in 1800?
8. What was the amount of the royal navy at this time?
9. Relate the progressive increase of the cotton trade.
10. Who were the great improvers of the steam engine?
11. What was the amount of the woollen trade, and persons employed, also of silk, metals, leather, and hides, at this period?
12. What was the quantity of porter brewed?
13. What quantity of soap and candles, also of linen, and lace, was made?
14. Who greatly improved the manufacture of porcelain?

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1. What men of science and literature flourished during the reign of Queen Anne?
2. What great discovery in the medical science and chirurgical art?
3. What great painters and architects to the year 1848, also engravers?
4. What is said of agriculture and botany?
5. Mention some of our modern poets and historians.

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1. What is said of the manners, diversions, &c., of the present times, and of the costume?

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1. When and where was the coronation of Queen Victoria celebrated?
2. When and to whom was Her Majesty married?
3. What attempt was made on Her Majesty's life, and what became of the culprit?
4. When was the Princess Royal born?
5. Who was the great Apostle of Temperance, and what was his estimate of the number of Teetotallers in Ireland?
6. Who fired a pistol at the Queen in May, 1842, what became of the guilty person, and by whom was another attempt made, and what became of the offender?
7. When and where did the Duke of Sussex die, at what age, and where was he buried?
8. Relate particulars of the death of Mr. O'Connell.
9. What great event happened in France in February, 1848, and who was proclaimed President of the Republic?
10. Relate particulars of the revolution at Rome, and whither did the Pope escape from the rebels?
11. What disturbances took place in London, caused by the Chartists, how did they proceed, and what was the result?

MONARCHS BEFORE THE CONQUEST.

	No.	Monarchs.	Began to Reign.	Reigned Years.
			A. D.	
Anglo-Saxons.	1	Egbert	827	10
	2	Ethelwolf	838	20
	3	Ethelbald	857	3
	4	Ethelbert	860	6
	5	Ethelred I	866	5
	6	Alfred the Great	872	29
	7	Edward the Elder	901	24
	8	Athelstan	925	15
	9	Edmund I	940	6
	10	Edred	946	9
	11	Edwy	955	4
	12	Edgar	959	16
	13	Edward II	975	3
	14	Ethelred II	978	37
	15	Edmund Ironside II ...	1016	1
Danes.	16	Sweyne	1014	3
	17	Canute...	1017	19
	18	Harold I	1036	3
	19	Hardicanute	1039	2
Saxons.	20	Edward the Confessor ...	1041	25
	21	Harold II., son of Godwin, Earl of Kent ...	1066	1

MONARCHS SINCE

	No.	Monarchs.	Began to Reign.
House of Normandy	1	William I	1066
	2	William II	1087
	3	Henry I	1100
House of Blois	4	Stephen	1135
House of Plantagenet	5	Henry II	1155
	6	Richard I	1189
	7	John	1199
	—	... ...	...
	—	... ...	...
	8	Henry III...	1216
	9	Edward I	1272
	—	... ...	...
	10	Edward II...	1307
	11	Edward III	1327
	12	Richard II	1377
	—	... .	...
House of Lancaster	13	Henry IV	1399
	—	... ...	...
	14	Henry V	1413
	15	Henry VI	1422
House of York	16	Edward IV	1461
	17	Edward V	1483
	18	Richard III	1483
House of Tudor	19	Henry VII	1485
	20	Henry VIII	1509
	—	... .	...
	—	... ...	...
	—	... ...	...
	21	Edward VI	1546
	22	Mary I	1553
	23	Elizabeth	1558
House of Stuart	24	James I	1603
	25	Charles I	1625
	26	Charles II...	1661
	27	James II	1685
	28	William III & Mary II	1689
	29	Anne	1701
House of Brunswick	30	George I	1714
	31	George II	1727
	32	George III	1760
	33	George IV...	1820
	34	William IV	1830
	35	Victoria	1837

To whom married.	When Married.	Reigned Years.
Matilda of Flanders	1053	21
(Never married)	...	13
Matilda of Scotland	1100	35
Matilda of Boulogne	1135	19
Eleanor of Guienne	1151	34
Berenguella of Navarre	1191	10
Earl Montague's daughter	1185	17
Avisa of Gloucester	1189	
Isabella of Angoulême	1200	
Eleanor of Provence	1236	56
Eleanor of Castile	1253	35
Mary of France	1299	
Isabella of France	1308	19
Philippa of Hainhault	1328	50
Anne of Luxemburgh	1382	22
Isabella of France	1396	
Mary Bohun	1397	13
Joanna of Navarre	1403	
Catharine of France	1420	10
Margaret of Anjou	1444	38
Elizabeth Woodville	1465	22
(Never married)	...	
Anne Neville	1471	2
Elizabeth of York	1486	23
Catharine of Arragon	1509	35
Anne Boleyn—Jane Seymour	1536	
Anne of Cleves—Catharine Howard	1540	
Catharine Parr	1543	
(Died young)	...	6
Philip of Spain	1554	5
(Never married	...	44
Anne of Denmark	1589	22
Henrietta of France	1625	24
Catharine of Portugal	1662	24
Anne Hyde—Mary Modenee	1673	4
Mary, daughter of James II	1683	13
George, Prince of Denmark	1683	12
Sophia of Zell	1681	12
Wilhelmina of Anspach	1705	33
Charlotte of Mechlin Strelitz	1761	60
Caroline of Brunswick	1795	10
Adelaide of Saxe Meinengen	1818	7
Albert, Prince of Saxe Coburg & Gotha	1840	

CHRONOLOGICAL CONTEMPORARY SOVEREIGNS of England, Russia, and Spain; from

A. D.	ENGLAND.	SCOTLAND.	FRANCE.
800	Egbert	Achaius.	Charlemagne
814	... ...	... ...	Louis I
816	... ...	... ...	... ...
817	... ...	... ...	... ...
819	... ...	Congale III	
820	... ...	... ...	... ...
824	... ...	Dougal	... ...
827	... ...	... ...	... ...
831	... ...	Alpin	
834	... ...	Kenneth II	
836	Ethelwulf		
843	... ...	... ...	Chas. le Chauve
847	... ...	... ...	... ...
854	... ...	Donald V	
855	... ...	... ...	... ...
857	Ethelbald		
858	... ...	Constantine II	... ...
860	Ethelbert		
866	Etheldred I		
868	... ...	... ...	... ...
872	Alfred the Great		
873	... ...	... ...	... ...
874	... ...	Ethus	
876	... ...	Gregory	... ...
—	... ...	... ...	... ...
—	... ...	... ...	... ...
877	... ...	... ...	Louis II
879	... ...	... ...	Louis III
—	... ...	... ...	Carloman
880	... ...	... ...	... ...
883	... ...	... ...	... ...
884	... ...	... ...	Charles le Gros
885	... ...	... ...	... ...
887	... ...	... ...	.. ...
888	.. ...	... ...	Hugh
891	... ...	... ...	... ...
892	... ...	Donald	
897	... ...	... ...	... ...
898	... ...	... ...	Chas. le Simple
899	... ...	... ...	... ...
900	Edward the Elder	... ...	... ...
901	... ...	Constantine III	... ...
902	... ...	... ...	... ...
906	... ...	... ...	... ...
—	... ...	... ...	... ...
907	... ...	... ...	... ...
910	... ...	... ...	... ...
911	... ...	... ...	... ...

TABLE OF THE
Scotland, France, Germany, the Papal States, Egbert to Victoria.

GERMANY.	PAPAL STATES.	SPAIN.	RUSSIA.
Charlemagne	Leo III		
Louis I			
... ...	Stephen V		
... ...	Pascal I		
... ...	Eugene II		
... ...	Valentine		
... ...	Gregory IV		
Louis II	Sergius II		
... ...	Leo IV	... ...,	Rurick
... ...	Benedict III		
... ...	Nicholas I	Garcia I	
... ...	Adrian II		
... ...	John VIII		
Carloman	... ...	... ...	Oleg
Louis III			
Chas. le Gros			
... ...	... ...	Fortunio	
... ...	Martin I		
... ...	Adrian III		
... ...	Stephen VI		
Arnold			
... ...	Formosus		
... ...	Stephen VII		
Louis IV			
... ...	Formosus II		
... ...	John IX		
... ...	Benedict IV	Sancho I	
... ...	Leo V		
... ...	Christopher		
... ...	Sergius III		
... ...	Anastasius		
Conrad I			

A. D.	ENGLAND.	SCOTLAND.	FRANCE.
912			
—			
918			
919			
922			Robert
923			Ralph
925	Athelstan		
926			
928			
929			
931			
936			Louis IV
938		Malcolm I	
940			
941	Edmund		
943			
945			
946	Edred		
954			Lothaire
955	Edwy		
956			
958		Indulphus	
959	Edgar		
965			
966			
968		Duffus	
970			
972		Cullenus	
973		Kenneth III	
—			
974			
975	Edw. the Martyr		
978	Ethelred II		
980			
983			
984			
985			
986			Louis V
987			Hugh Capet
994		Constantine IV	
996			
997		Grimus	Robert
999			
1000			
1002			
1003			
—			
1004		Malcolm II	
1009			
1012			
1015			
1016	Edmd. Ironside		
1017	Canute		
1018			

GERMANY.	PAPAL STATES.	SPAIN.	RUSSIA.
... ...	Lando		
... ...	... ...	... ...	Igor I
... ...	John X		
Henry I			
... ...	... ...	Garcia II	
... ...	Leo VI		
... ...	Stephen VIII		
... ...	John II		
Otho the Grt.	Leo VII		
... ...	Stephen IX		
... ...	Martin II		
... ...	... ...	... ...	Swiatoslaw I
... ...	Agapet II		
... ...	John XII		
... ...	Benedict V		
... ...	John XIII		
... ...	... ...	Sancho II	
Otho II	Domnus II	... ..	Jarapolk I
... ...	Benedict VI		
... ...	Benedict VII		
... ...	... ...	... ...	Waldimir the
Otho III			[Great
... ...	John XIV		
... ...	John XV		
... ...	John XVI		
... ...	... ...	Garcia III	
... ...	Gregory V.		
... ...	Sylvester II		
... ...	... ...	Sancho the Great	
Henry II			
... ...	John XVII &		
... ...	John XVIII		
... ...	Sergius IV		
... ...	Benedot VIII		
... ...	... ...	... ...	Swiatopolsk I.
... ...	... ...	... ...	Jaroslaw I

A. D.	ENGLAND.	SCOTLAND.	FRANCE.
912	... ...	... ...	... ...
—	... ...	... ...	... ...
913	... ...	... ...	... ...
919	... ...	... ...	... ...
922	... ...	... ...	Robert
923	... ...	... ...	Ralph
925	Athelstan		
926	... ...	... ...	... ...
928	... ...	... ...	... ...
929	... ...	... ...	... ...
931	... ...	... ...	... ...
936	... ...	... ...	Louis IV
938	... ...	Malcolm I	
940	... ...	... ...	... ...
941	Edmund		
943	... ...	... ...	... ...
945	... ...	... ...	... ...
946	Edred	... ...	... ...
954	... ...	... ...	Lothaire
955	Edwy		
956	... ...	... ...	... ...
958	... ...	Indulphus	
959	Edgar		
965	... ...	... ...	... ...
966	... ...	... ...	... ...
968	... ...	Duffus	
970	... ...	... ...	... ...
972	... ...	Cullenus	
973	... ...	Kenneth III	... ...
—	... ...	... ...	... ...
974	... ...	... ...	... ...
975	Edw. the Martyr		
978	Ethelred II		
980	... ...	... ...	... ...
983	... ...	... ...	... ...
984	... ...	... ...	... ...
985	... ...	... ...	... ...
986	... ...	... ...	Louis V
987	... ...	... ...	Hugh Capet
994	... ...	Constantine IV	... ...
996	... ...	... ...	... ...
997	... ...	Grimus	Robert
999	... ...	... ...	... ...
1000	... ...	... ...	... ...
1002	... ...	... ...	... ...
1003	... ...	... ...	... ...
—	... ...	... ...	... ...
1004	... ...	Malcolm II	
1009	... ...	... ...	... ...
1012	... ...	... ...	... ...
1015	... ...	... ...	... ...
1016	Edmd. Ironside		
1017	Canute		
1018	... ...	... ...	... ...

GERMANY.	PAPAL STATES.	SPAIN.	RUSSIA.
... ...	Lando		
... ...	... ...	... .	Igor I
... ...	John X		
Henry I			
... ...	... ...	Garcia II	
... ...	Leo VI		
... ...	Stephen VIII		
... ...	John II		
Otho the Grt.	Leo VII		
... ...	Stephen IX		
... ...	Martin II		
... ...	... ...	... ...	Swiatoslaw I
... ...	Agapet II		
... ...	John XII		
... ...	Benedict V		
... .	John XIII		
... ...	... ...	Sancho II	
Otho II	Domnus II	... ..	Jarapolk I
... ...	Benedict VI		
... ...	Benedict VII		
... ...	... ...	... ...	Waldimir the
Otho III			[Great
... ...	John XIV		
... ...	John XV		
... ...	John XVI		
... ...	... ...	Garcia III	
... ...	Gregory V		
... ...	Sylvester II		
... ...	... ...	Sancho the Great	
Henry II			
... ...	John XVII &		
... ...	John XVIII		
... ...	Sergius IV		
... ...	Benedot VIII		
... ...	... ...	... ...	Swiatopolsk I.
... ...	... ...	... ...	Jaroslaw I

A. D.	ENGLAND.	SCOTLAND.	FRANCE.
1024	... ...	... ...	... ...
1031	... ...	... ...	Henry I
1033	... ...	... ...	... ...
1034	... ...	Duncan	
1035	... ...	... ...	... ..
—	... ...	... ...	... ...
1036	Harold		
1039	Hardicanute	... ...	... ...
1040	... ...	Macbeth	
1041	Edw. the Confes.		
1044	... ...	... ...	... ...
1047	... ...	... ...	... ...
1048	... ...	... ...	... ...
1049	... ...	... ...	... ...
1051	... ...	... ...	... ...
1054	... ...	... ...	... ...
1055	... ...	... ...	... ...
1056	... ...	... ...	... ...
1057	... ...	Malcolm III	... ...
1058	... ...	... ...	... ...
1060	... ...	... ...	Philip I
1061	... ...	... ...	... ...
1063	... ...	... ...	... ...
1066	Harold II	... ...	... ...
—	William I		
1072	... ...	... ...	... ...
1073	... ...	... ...	... ...
1076	... ...	... ...	... ...
1078	... ...	... ...	... ...
1085	... ...	... ...	... ...
1087	William II	... ...	... ...
1093	... ...	Donald VI	... ...
1094	... ...	Duncan II	... ...
1096	... ...	Edgar	
1099	.. ...	... ...	... ...
1100	Henry I		
1104	... ...	... ...	... ...
1106	... ...	... ...	... ...
1107	... ...	Alexander I	
1108	... ...	... ...	Louis VI
1109	... ...	... ...	... ...
1113	... ...	... ...	... ...
1118	... ...	... ...	... ...
1119	... ...	... ...	... ...
1124	... ...	David I	
1125	... ...	... ...	... ...
1126	... ...	... ...	... ...
1130	... ...	... ...	... ...
1132	... ...	... ...	... ...
1133	... ...	... ...	... ...
1134	... ...	... ...	... ...
1135	Stephen		
1137	... ...	... ...	Louis VII
1138	... ...	... ...	.. ...

GERMANY.	PAPAL STATES.	SPAIN.	RUSSIA.
Conrad II.			
... ...	... ...	Ferdinand I., in Castile	
... ...	... ...	Garcia IV., in Nav.	
... ...	... ...	Ramirez I., in Aragon	
Henry III			
... ...	Gregory VI		
... ...	Clement II		
... ...	Damasius II		
... ...	Leo IX		
... ...	... ...	... ...	Isaslaw I
... ...	... ...	Sancho IV., of Navarre	
... ...	Victor II		
Henry IV			
... ...	Stephen X		
... ...	Nicholas II		
... ...	Alexander II		
... ...	... ...	Sancho I., in Arrag.	
... ...	... ...	Sancho I., in Castile	
... ...	... ...	Alphonso I., Castile	
... ...	Gregory VII	... ...	Swatoslaw II
... ...	... ...	Sancho V., of Nav.	
... ...	... ...	... & Arrag.	Wsewolod I
... ...	Victor III		
... ...	Urban II		
... ...	... ...	... ...	Swiatopolsk II
... ...	... ...	Peter I., Nav. & Arr.	
... ...	Pascal II		
... ...	... ...	Alphonso I., Nav. & Arragon	
Henry V			
... ...	... ...	Uraca, Castile	
... ...	... ...	... ...	Woldimir II
... ...	Jelas II		
... ...	Calixtus II		
Lothaire II	Honorius II	... ..	Mitislaw
... ...	... ...	Alphonso II, Castile	
... ...	Innocent II		
... ...	... ...	... ...	Jarapolk II.
... ...	... ...	Garcia, V. N.	
... ...	... ...	Ramirez II., Arrag.	
... ...	... ...	Petronilla & Raymondo, Arrag.	
Conrad III	... ...		Wsewolod II

A. D.	ENGLAND.	SCOTLAND.	FRANCE.
1143			
1144			
1145			
1146			
1149			
1150			
1152			
1153		Malcolm IV	
1154	Henry II		
1155			
1157			
1158			
1159			
1162			
1165		William	
1175			
1177			
1180			Philip II
1181			
1185			
1187			
1188			
1189	Richard		
1190			
1191			
1194			
1196			
1198			
—			
1199	John		
1212			
1213			
1214		Alexander II	
1216	Henry III		
1217			
1223			Louis VIII
1226			St. Louis IX
1227			
1234			
1238			
1241			
1243			
1245		Alexander III	
1249			
1250			
1252			
1253			
1254			
1257			
1262			
1264			
1265			
1270			Philip III

GERMANY.	PAPAL STATES.	SPAIN.	RUSSIA.
....	Celestine II		
... ...	Lucius II		
... ...	Eugenius III		
... ...	... ...	... ...	Isaslaw II
... ...	... ...	... ...	Jurje I. D
... ...	... ...	Sancho the Wise, [Nav.	
Frederic I			
... ...	Anastasius IV		
... ...	Adrian IV		
... ...	... ...	Sancho II., Castile	Andrej
... ...	... ...	Alphonso III., Cas- [tile	
... ...	Alexandr III		
... ...	... ...	Alphonso II., Arra.	
... ...	... ...	... ...	Michel I
... ...	... ...	... ..	Wsewolod III
... ...	Lucius III		
... ...	Urban III		
... ...	Gregory VIII		
... ...	Clement III		
Henry VI			
... ...	Celestine III		
... ...	... ...	Sancho VII., [Nav.	
... ...	... ...	Peter II., [Arragon	
Philip	Innocent III		
Otho IV			
Frederic II			
... ...	... ...	James I., [Arragon	Jurje II
... ...	... ...	Henry I., [Castile	
... ...	Honorius III	Ferdinand III., [Castile	Constantine
... ...	Gregory IX		
... ...	... ...	Theobald I., [Nav.	
... ...	... ...	... ...	Jaroslaw II
... ...	Celestine IV		
... ...	Innocent IV		
... ...	... ...	... ...	Alex. Newskoi
Conrad IV			
... ...	... ...	Alphonso IV., [Catl.	
... ...	... ...	Theobald II., [Nav.	
Wil. of Hollnd	Alexander IV		
Richard Duke [of Cornwall	Urban IX	... ...	Jaroslaw III
... ...	Gregory X	... ...	Wasilej I
... ...	Clement IV		
... ...	... ...	Henry I., [Nav.	

A. D.	ENGLAND.	SCOTLAND.	FRANCE.
1272	Edward I		
1273	... ...	... ...	... ...
1274	... ...	... ...	... ...
1275	... ...	... ...	... ...
1276	... ...	... ...	... ...
—	... ...	... ...	... ...
—	... ...	... ...	... ...
1277	... ...	... ...	... ...
1281	... ...	... ...	... ...
1284	... ...	... ...	... ...
1285	... ...	... ...	Philip IV
1286	... ...	Margaret	
1288	... ...	John Baliol	... ...
1291	... ...	... ...	... ...
1292	... ...	... ...	... ...
1294	... ...	... ...	... ...
1295	... ...	... ...	... ...
1296	... ...	Interregnum	
1298	... ...	... ...	... ...
1303	... ...	... ...	... ...
1305	... ...	... ...	... ...
1306	... ...	Robert I	
1307	Edward II		
1308	.. ...	... ...	... ...
1312	... ...	... ...	[of Navarre
1314	... ...	... ...	Louis X., King
1316	... ...	... ...	John I
—	... ...	... ...	Philip V
1317	... ...	... ...	... ...
1322	... ...	... ...	Charles IV
1327	Edward III	... ...	... ...
1328	... ...	... ...	Philip VI
1329	... ...	David II	
1334	... ...	... ...	... ...
1336	... ...	... ...	... ...
1340	... ...	... ...	.. ...
1342	... ...	... ...	... ...
1346	... ...	... ...	... ...
1349	... ...	... ...	John II
1350	... ...	... ...	... ...
1353	... ...	... ...	... ...
1359	... ...	... ...	... ...
1363	... ...	... ...	... ...
1364	... ...	... ...	Charles V
1369	... ...	... ...	... ...
1371	... ...	Robert II	... ...
1377	Richard II		
1378	... ...	... ...	... ...
1379	... ...	... ...	... ...
1380	... ...	... ...	Charles VI
1386	... ...	... ...	... ...
1387	... ...	... ...	... ...
1389	... ...	... ...	... ...
1390	... ...	Robert III	... ...

GERMANY.	PAPAL STATES.	SPAIN.	RUSSIA.
[Hapsburg			
Rodolph of			
... ...	... ...	Joanna I., [Navarre	
... ...	... ...	... ...	Dimitrej
... ...	Innocent V	Peter III., [Arrag.	
... ...	Adrian V		
... ...	John XX		
... ...	Nicholas III		
... ...	Martin IV	... ...	Andrej
... ...	... ...	Sancho IV., [Castile	
... ...	Honorius IV	Alphonso III., [Arr.	
... ...	Nicholas IV		
... ...	... ...	James II., [Arrag.	
Adolphus of			
[Nassau	Celestine V	... ...	Danillo
... ...	Boniface VIII	Ferdinand IV.,	
		[Castile	
Albert of Aus.			
... ...	Benedict X		
... ...	Clement V	... ...	Micheilow
Henry VII			
... ...	... .	Alphonso V., [Casti.	
Louis IV			
... ...	John XXI		
... ...	... ...	... ..	Jurje III
... ...	Alexander II		
... ...	... ...	Joanna II., [Navar.	Iwan I. of Mos-
			[cow
... ...	Benedict XI		
... ...	... ...	Peter II., [Arragon	
... ...	... ...	... ...	Semen
... ...	Clement VI		
Charles IV			
... ...	... ...	Charles II., [Nav.	
... ...	... ...	Peter I., [Castile	
... ...	Innocent VI	... ...	Iwan II
... ...	... ...	... ...	Dimitrej II
... ...	Urban V	... ...	Dimitrej III
... ...	... ...	Henry II., [Castile	
... ...	Gregory XI		
Wenceslaus	Urban VI		
... ...	... ...	John I., [Castile	
... ...	... ...	Charles III., [Nav.	
... ...	... ...	John I., [Arragon	
... ...	... ...	... ...	Wassilej II
... ...	Boniface IX	Henry III., [Castile	

A. D.	ENGLAND.	SCOTLAND.	FRANCE.
1395			
1399	Henry IV		
1400			
1404			
1406		James I	
1409			
1410			
1411			
1412			
1413	Henry V		
1416			
1417			
1422	Henry VI		Charles VII
1425			
1431			
1437		James II	
1440			
1444			
1455			
1457			
1458			
1460		James III	
1461	Edward IV		Louis XI
1462			
1464			
1471			
1474			
1479			
1483	Edward V		Charles VIII
—	Richard III		
1484			
1485	Henry VII		
1488		James IV	
1492			
1493			
1498			Louis XII
1503			
1505			
1509	Henry VIII		
1513		James V	
1515			Francis I
1516			
1519			
1522			
1523			
1533			
1534			
1542		Mary	
1547	Edward VI		Henry II
1550			
1553	Mary		
1555			
1556			
1558	Elizabeth		

GERMANY.	PAPAL STATES.	SPAIN.	RUSSIA.
... ...	... ...	Martin [Arragon	
Robert			
... ...	Innocent VII		
... ...	Gregory XII	John II., [Castile	
... ...	Alexander V		
... ...	John XXII		
Sigismond			
... ...	... ...	Ferdinand I. [Arra.	
... ...	... ...	Alphonso V., [Arra.	
... ...	Martin V		
... ...	... ...	Blanche, Nav., and [John I., Arrag.	Wassilej III
... ...	Eugene IV		
Albert II			
Frederic III			
... ...	Nicholas V		
... ...	... ...	Henry IV., [Castile	
... ...	Calixtus III		
... ...	Pius II		
... ...	... ...	... ...	Iwan Wassilej
... ...	Paul II		
... ...	Sixtus IV	[bella of Castile	
... ...	... ...	Ferdinand II. & Isa-	
... ...	... ...	Ferdinand II, the Catholic, Arrag. Eleonor, Navar.	
... ...	Innocent VIII	Francis, Phœbus, Nav. Catherine, Navarre.	
... ...	Alexander VI		
Maximilian I			
... ...	Pius III		
... ...	Julius II	... ...	Wassilej IV
... ...	Leo X		
... ...	... ...	Charles I., Emper.	
Charles V	... ...	Charles V	
... ...	Adrian VI		
... ...	Clement VII		
... ...	... ...	... ...	Iwan Wesele-
... ...	Paul III		[jevitch
... ...	Julius III		
... ...	Marcellinus II		
... ...	Paul IV	Philip II	
Ferdinand			

A. D.	ENGLAND.	SCOTLAND.	FRANCE.
1559	... ...	... ...	Francis II.
1560	... ...	... ...	Charles IX.
1564	... ...	... ...	... ...
1566	... ...	... ...	... ...
1567	... ...	James VI.	
1572	... ...	... ...	... ...
1574	... ...	... ...	Henry III.
1576	... ...	... ...	... ...
1584	... ...	... ...	... ...
1585	... ...	... ...	... ...
1589	... ...	... ...	Henry IV.
1590	... ...	... ...	... ...
—	... ...	... ...	... ...
1591	... ...	... ...	... ...
1592	... ...	... ...	... ...
1598	... ...	... ...	... ...
	GREAT BRITAIN.		
1603	James I.	Ascended the throne of Eng. March, 1603.	
1605	... ...	... ...	... ...
1606	... ...	... ...	... ...
1610	... ...	... ...	Louis XIII.
1612	... ...	... ...	... ...
1613	... ...	... ...	... ...
1619	... ...	... ...	... ...
1621	... ...	... ...	... ...
1623	... ...	... ...	... ...
1625	Charles I.		
1637	... ...	... ...	... ...
1643	... ...	... ...	Louis XIV.
1644	... ...	... ...	... ...
1645	... ...	... ...	... ...
1655	... ...	... ...	... ...
1658	... ...	... ...	... ...
1660	Charles II.		
1665	... ...	... ...	... ...
1667	... ...	... ...	... ...
1670	... ...	... ...	... ...
1676	... ...	... ...	... ...
1682	... ...	... ...	... ...
1685	James II.	... ...	... ...
1689	Mary & William III.	... ...	... ...
1691	... ...	... ...	... ...
1694	William III.		
1700	... ...	... ...	... ...
1702	Anne.		
1705	... ...	... ...	... ...
1711	... ...	... ...	... ...
1714	George I.		
1715	... ...	... ...	Louis XV.
1721	... ...	... ...	... ...
1724	... ...	... ...	... ...

GERMANY.	PAPAL STATES.	SPAIN.	RUSSIA.
... ...	Pius IV		
Maximilian II			
... ...	Pius V		
... ...	Gregory XIII		
Rodolph II			
... ...	... ...	... ...	Isodore I
... ...	Sixtus V		
... ...	Urban VII		
... ...	Gregory XIV		
... ...	Innocent IX		
... ...	Clement VIII		
... ...	... ...	Philip III	Boris Godu- [now
... ...	Leo XI		
... ...	... ...	... ...	Wassilij Schin- [skoi
Mathias			
... ...	... ...	... ...	Michael Tedro- [witsh
Ferdinand II			
... ...	Gregory XV	Philip IV	
... ...	Urban VIII		
Ferdinand III			
... ...	Innocent X		
... ...	... ...	... ...	Alexej Michael
... ...	Alexander VII		
Leopold I			
... ...	... ...	Charles II	
... ...	Clement IX		
... ...	Clement X		
... ...	Innocent XI	... ...	Jeodore II
... ...	... ...	... ...	Iwan Alexndr
... ...	... ...	... ...	Peter the Great
... ...	Alexandr VIII		
... ...	Innocent XII		
... ...	Clement XI	Philip V	
Joseph I			
Charles VI			
... ...	Innocent XIII		
... ...	Benedict XIII		

A. D.	GREAT BRITAIN.	SCOTLAND.	FRANCE.
1725	... ...	(*Vide* Great	... ...
1727	George II	Britain.)	... ...
1730	... ...	... ...	... ...
1740	... ...	... ...	... ...
1741	... ...	... ...	... ...
1742	... ...	... ...	... ...
1745	... ...	... ...	... ...
1751	... ...	... ...	... ...
1758	... ...	... ...	... ...
1759	... ...	... ...	... ...
1760	George III		
1762	... ...	... ...	... ...
—	... ...	... ...	.. ...
1765	... ...	... ...	... ...
176.9	... ...	... ...	... ...
177.	... ...	... ...	Louis XVI
177a	... ...	... ...	... ...
1788	... ...	... ...	... ...
1790	... ...	... ...	... ...
1792	... ...	... ...	Republic
1796	... ...	... ...	... ...
1800	... ...	... ...	... ...
1801	... ...	... ...	... ...
1804	... ...	... ...	Napoleon Buona-parte
1806	... ...	... ...	... ...
1808	... ...	... ...	... ...
—	... ...	... ...	... ...
1811	Regency		
1814	... ...	... ...	Louis XVIII
1820	George IV		
1823	... ...	... ...	... ...
1824	... ...	... ...	Charles X
1825	... ...	... ...	... ...
1828			
1829			
1830	William IV	... ...	Louis Philip
1831	... ...	... ...	... ...
1833	... ...	... ...	... ...
1835	... ...	... ...	... ...
1837	Victoria		
1846	... ...	... ...	... ...
1848	... ...	... ...	PRESIDENT.
1849	... ...	... ...	Louis Bonaparte

Upon the establishment of the Confederacy of the Rhine in 1806 Emperor of Austria,

GERMANY.	PAPAL STATES.	SPAIN.	RUSSIA.
... ...	... ...	... ...	Catharine I
... ...	... ...	... ...	Peter II
... ...	Clement XII	... ...	Anne
... ...	Benedict XIV	... ...	Iwan III
... ...	... ...	... ...	Elizabeth
Charles VII			
Francis I. &			
[Maria Teresa		Ferdinand VI	
... ...	Clement XIII		
... ...	... ...	Charles III	
... ...	... ...	... ...	Peter III
... ...	... ...	... ...	Catharine II
Joseph II			
... ...	Clement XIV		
... ...	Pius VI		
... ...	... ...	Charles IV	
Leopold II			
Francis II*			
... ...	... ...	... ...	Paul I
... ...	Pius VII		
... ...	... ...	... ...	Alexander
AUSTRIA.			
Francis I			
... ...	... ...	Ferdinand VII	
... ...	... ...	Jerome Buonaparte	
... ...	... ...	Ferdinand VII	
... ...	Leo XII		
... ...	... ...	... ...	Nicholas I
... ...	Gregory XVI		
... ...	... ...	Isabella II	
Ferdinand I			
... ...	Pius IX		
Fras. Joseph I			

Francis ceased to be Emperor of Germany, and became hereditary under the title of Francis I.

CHRONOLOGICAL TABLE, &c. of the LESS

A. D.	DENMARK.	NAPLES.	POLAND.
—	Christian V	... ...	Augustus II
1699	Frederic IV		
1701	... ...	... ...	... ...
1704	... ...	... ...	Stanislaus (Leczinsky)
1706	... ...	... ...	... ...
1709	... ...	... ...	Augustus III
1713	... ...	Charles II	... ...
1719	... ...	... ...	... ...
1720	... ...	... ...	... ...
1730	Christian VI	... ...	... ...
1733			
1735	... ...	Charles III	
1740	... ...	... ...	... ...
1746	Frederic V		
1750	... ...	... ...	... ...
1758	... ...	... ...	... ...
1759	... ...	Ferdinand IV	
1764	... ...	... ...	Stanislaus (Poniatowsky)
1766	Christian VII		
1771	... ...	... ...	... ...
1772	... ...	... ...	1st Partition
1773	... ...	... ...	... ...
1777	... ...	... ...	... ...
1786	... ...	... ...	... ...
1792	... ...	... ...	... ...
1793	... ...	... ...	2nd Partition
1795	... ...	... ...	3rd Partition
1796	... ...	... ...	... ...
1797	... ...	... ...	... ...
1799	... ...	... ...	... ...
1802	... ...	... ...	... ...
1808	Frederic VI	Jos. Buonaparte	
1809	... ...	... ...	... ...
1815	... ...	Joach. Murat	Alexander
1818	... ...	... ...	... ...
1821	... ...	Ferdinand I	... ...
1825	... ...	... ...	Nicholas
1826	... ...	Francis	... ...
1828	... ...	... ...	... ...
1829			
1830	... ...	Ferdinand II	
1831	... ...	... ...	... ...
1832			
1833			
1839	Christian VIII		
1840	... ...	... ...	... ...
1844	... ...	... ...	... ...

EUROPEAN STATES; from 1699 to 1849.

PORTUGAL.	PRUSSIA.	SARDINIA.	SWEDEN.
Peter II	Fred. William	... ...	Charles XII
... ...	Frederick I		
John V			
... ...	Fred. Will. I		
... ...	... ...	... ... [II	Ulrica Eleonora
... ...	... ...	Victor Amadeus	Frederic
... ...	... ...	Chas. Emanuel [III	
... ...	Fred. the Grt.		
Jos. Emmanuel			
... ...	... ...	... ...	Adol. Frederic
... ...	... ...	... ...	Gustavus III
... ...	... ...	Victor Amadeus [III	
Maria			
... ...	Fred. Will. II		
... ...	... ...	... ...	Gustavus Adol- [phus IV
... ...	... ...	Chas. Emanuel [IV	
... ...	Fred. Will. III		
John VI			
... ...	... ...	Victor Emanuel	
... ...	... ...	... ...	Charles XIII
... ...	... ...	... ...	Chas. John XIV
... ...	... ...	Charles Felix	
Pedro IV			
Maria da Gloria			
... ...	Chas. Albert		
... ...	Fred. Will. IV		
... ...	... ...	Victor Emanuel [II	Oscar I

AN

EXPLANATORY INDEX

OF

TECHNICAL AND OTHER TERMS.

Aborigines—primitive inhabitants of a country.
Accession—arriving at or coming to a throne.
Annals—history arranged in order of time.
Annuity—yearly rents.
Antiphoners—books of church music.
Apparatus—means made use of.
Aristocracy—the body of the nobles, or government by the nobles.
Assessment—a sum raised on property, a tax.
Augury—foretelling future events by the entrails of birds, &c.
Auricular—secret, private, in the ear.
Auspices—patronage, direction.

Barons—lords, the aristocracy.
Benefices—ecclesiastical possessions or livings.
Bill of attainder—a bill which finds guilty or attaints.
Boom—a bar laid across a harbour.
Broadsides—shot fired from the whole of one side of a ship.
Bull, Bulla—a seal or ordinance published by the pope.
Bulwark—security, fortification.

Cabals—intrigues, persons assembled to plot.
Cashiered—dismissed disgracefully.
Celtic, Celts—the first people who made an irruption into Europe and settled there from Asia.
Chantries—places or chapels endowed to sing mass for souls.
Charters—privileges.
Chivalry—knighthood under the feudal government.
Coifs—a sort of caps.
Conference—a meeting of ecclesiastics.
Conformity—agreeing with in religion.
Congress—a meeting of ambassadors to settle the concerns of nations.
Consistorial—relating to an ecclesiastical court.
Contraband—prohibited, forbidden, illegal.
Covenanters—men who swore to certain covenants during the civil wars.
Crusade—military expedition against the Mahometans
Cure of souls—the employment of a priest in a parish.

Deacon—one of the major orders of the clergy, the next dignity to that of priest.
Democrat—one who upholds a mob government.
Desperadoes—violent, blood-thirsty men.
Diocese—the circuit containing the bishop's jurisdiction.
Domiciliary—entering into private houses.

Emissaries—spies, messengers.
Encyclical—circular.
Entail—the rule of descent or accession settled so that it cannot be altered by the next possessor.
Entrenchments—works fortified by a ditch or trench.
Episcopacy—government of bishops.
Escalade—climbing the walls.
Exchequer—the court for the revenues of the crown.
Excise—taxes laid on commodities.

Falconer—one who trains hawks
Fanatics—persons with unreasonable and wild notions of religion.
Farthingale—a hoop used to spread the petticoats.
Fealty—duty or faith due to a superior lord.
Feuds—quarrels.
Finances—the revenue or income of the state.
First-fruits—profits of a benefice for one year.
Flank—the side of a battalion of soldiers.
Flanked—exposed at the side to the fire of the enemy.

Galleys—low flat vessels driven by oars.
Galleons—large ships with four or five decks.
Gaul—the country now called France.
Generalissimo—the general having the chief command.
Great seal—a stamp used by the king in signing patents.
Guarda Costas—vessels to prevent smuggling.
Guilds—corporations, societies of trades, &c.

Habeas Corpus—an act which obliges the government to bring any person to trial within a certain time.
Hangings of arras—cloth woven in regular figures.
Hierarchy—a regular subordination of dignities in the church.
Hostages—persons given in trust for the security of the performance of certain conditions.
Hide of land—containing about 100 acres.

Illumination—adorned by painting figures, &c.
Independents—a sect that holds that every separate congregation is a complete church.
Institution—put in possession of a benefice, &c.
Interregnum—the time in which a throne is vacant between th death of one prince and the accession of another.
Investitures—the right of giving possession to a living or benefic

Jesuits—a religious order in the Catholic Church.
Junto—a cabal, persons joined together.

Lampreys—a kind of eels.
Lapse—to fall by degrees from one proprietor to another.
Laymen—those not in clerical orders, or in a monastery
Legate—the pope's ambassador.
Legion—a body of Roman soldiers, consisting of about 5,000 men.
Levies—men or money raised by government.
Lower House—House of Commons.

Manœuvres—skilful and unexpected action.
Marauders—soldiers who, without orders, plunder.
Mercenaries—soldiers hired for pay from foreign parts.
Millenarians—a sect holding that our Saviour will reign upon earth a thousand years.
Missals—books of the mass.
Missionaries—persons sent to propagate religion.
Monopoly—the power of selling commodities to the exclusion of other persons.
Mortgages—pledges put into the hands of a creditor as security.

Noviciate—the time spent before the vow.
Null and void—of no effect, useless.
Nuncio—a pope's ambassador.

Oligarchy—government of a small number.
Opera—a theatre where pieces are represented by vocal and instrumental music.

Palatinate—places possessing royal grants or privileges.
Panoply—complete armour.
Papal constitution—orders and regulations from the see of Rome.
Penal statutes—laws of vindictive punishment.
Pensioner guards—a band of gentlemen to guard the sovereign.
Piece-of-eight—a Spanish coin.
Pillion—a soft saddle set behind a horseman for a female to ride on.
Placarded—fixed up, posted up.
Preliminaries—articles agreed upon before peace.
Presbyterian—a sect who disown episcopacy.
Prime mart—principal market.
Privateers—vessels of war fitted out to take merchant vessels.
Process—a course of law.
Protest—a solemn declaration against.
Protomartyr—the first martyr.
Puns and quibbles—the same words used in different senses.
Puritans—a name given to some dissenters from the church of England.

Quartered—soldiers lodged.
Quintal—a hundred-weight, one hundred and twelve pounds.
Quoits—a game of throwing a weight to a distance at a certain mark.

Rack—an engine of torture.
Razed—to throw buildings to the ground.
Records—authentic memorials.
Refusing quarter—putting to death prisoners in battle.
Regicides—king-killers.
Regular clergy—clergy under rules and vows in communities.
Roman toga—a kind of gown.
Ruff—puckered linen, worn round the neck.

See—a diocese of a bishop.
Sessions—an assembly of judges sitting.
Sheriff—a county officer, to execute the law
Shrines—cases in which are deposited the relics of saints.
Skittles—a game with pieces of wood shaped like sugar-loaves struck by a ball of wood.
Squadron—a number of ships under one command.
Standard purity—tried by the test established by law.
Subdeacon—next order below a deacon.
Subsidies—money granted to a government.
Sumptuary laws—regulating the expense and manner of dress.
Synod—an assembly of ecclesiastics.

Tassels—a bunch of silk, &c. for ornaments.
Tennis—a game at which a ball is struck by a racket or battledore.
Temporalities—secular possessions, as distinguished from spiritual.
Tenures—the conditions by which lands or houses are held.
Test—an oath taken against transubstantiation.
Tonnage and poundage—money paid as tax upon merchandise.
Tournaments—sham military encounters.
Train bands—militia soldiers.
Transports—vessels of carriage, principally to convey troops.

Van—the front.
Vassal—one who depends on a superior.
Vicars-general, Archdeacons—persons who, in certain things, supply the place of bishops.

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ADDENDA.

THE HOUSE OF BRUNSWICK.

MILITARY AFFAIRS.

(Continued from p. 337.)

In the year 1848, at a Court of Directors of the East India Company, on the 4th of August, the Earl Dalhousie was appointed Governor-General of India. Shortly after, in consequence of the desertion of Shere Singh with 5,000 men, General Whish was obliged to raise the siege of Moultan, which was followed by an engagement between the British and Sikh troops, when the latter were driven back to the town with great loss. In the meantime Lord Gough crossed the Chenul and arrived before Moultan, which, after a week's bombardment, was taken by storm. The battle of Chillianwallah followed, in which Lord Gough defeated the Sikhs with great loss to the enemy. On the 22nd the citadel and garrison surrendered unconditionally. Lord Gough, following up his success, attacked the Sikh army under Shere Singh in its position at Goojerat, and completely routed it, the enemy leaving a great part of their artillery and the whole of their standing camp in the hands of the British. Soon after, Shere Singh and the principal Sikh chiefs, with their army of 16,000 men, surrendered, with all their arms and 41 guns, to Major G. Gilbert.

On the 17th of March, 1849, Sir C. Napier was sworn in Commander-in-Chief of the East India Company's forces; he left London on the 27th, and arrived at Calcutta on the 6th of May. The Punjaub was annexed to the British Empire, the Maharajah of Lahore retiring to Poonah on a pension of £40,000 a year. On the 27th, Sir C. Napier disbanded the 66th regiment Bengal Native Infantry for mutiny, and shortly after he resigned the chief command. The Burmese having committed some depredations upon British subjects, a naval force was sent to Rangoon, which destroyed their batteries and captured Pegu and Fromé. The Burmese then sued for peace, which was proclaimed at Fort William on the 20th of June.

In December, 1853, a portocol was signed at Vienna by England, France, Austria, and Prussia, for the maintenance of the integrity of the Turkish Empire, upon which the Russian ambassador withdrew from Paris. A summons was then sent to the Emperor of Russia requiring him to guarantee that his troops should evacuate Wallachia and Moldavia by the 30th of April following. On the 12th of March a treaty of alliance between England, France, and Turkey was signed at Constantinople. On the 25th the reply of the Emperor of Russia to the ultimatum of the Western Powers was, that he had no answer to send. In the meantime, the Russians entered the Dobrudscha, crossing the Danube at several points. On the 27th France declared war against Russia, which was followed on the 28th by the declaration of war by Queen Victoria, and Lord Raglan, the British Commander-in-Chief, left London for the East. On the 22nd April, 1854. the English and French fleets appeared before Odessa, which was bombarded, and the forts of Libau and Windau were blockaded. The "Tiger," war steamer, unfortunately ran aground in a fog, and was taken by the Russians. Tornea was taken by a British armament on the 8th of June, and on the 14th the English and French fleets joined in Baro Sound. The day after, the Russians raised the siege of Silistria and retreated across the Danube. The Russian batteries at the Sulina mouth of the Danube were destroyed by the "Firebrand" and the "Fury" steamers under Captain Parker. At Guorgevo the Turks defeated the Russians, but sustained a signal defeat in Armenia, losing about 2,000 men, 4 guns, and 13 flags. On the 16th August, after a most destructive bombardment, Bomarsund, with 2,000 Russians, surrendered to the Allies.

The Allies having made good their disembarcation at Eupatoria, the battle of the Alma followed, in which the Russians, under Prince Menzikoff, were utterly defeated by the English and French armies under Lord Raglan and Marshal St. Arnaud. Resting for two days, the army then marched towards Balaclava, which they reached after fourteen hours' struggle through almost impenetrable woods and marshes, without food or water. Balaclava was then taken, its forts subdued, and the mountainous ridges in its vicinity occupied. By an act of daring on the part of a young naval officer, who carried instructions to Sir E. Lyons, the fleet appeared off the harbour, which they entered. Before them was Sebastopol, at the distance of nine miles, but its harbour was shut against them; seven great ships of the Russians had been sunk at the entrance. Meanwhile, many of the brave men who had escaped the fire of the enemy at Alma perished under the attacks of a more deadly enemy—cholera.

They were pursued by cholera to the very battle-field; they were pursued by cholera during their short rest on the field of their victory; through their fourteen hours' march to Balaclava; through days and nights, to the very trenches before Sebastopol. Never was a little army more wasted than the British before Sebastopol, and never did a remnant of men bear disease, privation, and loss in deadly encounters, with greater powers of endurance, and unflinching devotion to duty. The grand attack upon Sebastopol began the 17th of October—the English on the right, the French on the left. The French works were weak, and explosions took place in their magazines. The British attack was more effectual, and the Russian round tower was soon demolished. On the 25th, many parts of the town were in flames, and the number killed within the walls was appalling. At an early hour six compact masses of Russian infantry marched up the valley. About a mile in advance were two batteries, which played on the redoubts garrisoned by the Turks. Behind their guns were enormous masses of cavalry. The first redoubt was carried, and the Turks fled. The second was taken in like manner, and its guns turned against the flying Moslems. The whole force of the Russians swept onward towards the 93rd Highlanders, who calmly waited their approach. With breathless suspense every one awaits the bursting of the wave upon the line of the Gaelic rock, but ere they come within 150 yards a deadly volley flashes from the levelled rifle, and carries death and terror into the Russians. They wheel about, open files right and left, and fly back faster than they came. "Bravo!" shouted the excited spectators. But the storm is now to be borne by the British cavalry. The Russians advanced first at a canter, then slowly, and at last nearly halted. Their first line was at least double the length of the British, and was three deep. Behind them was a similar line, equally strong and compact. The trumpets sound: the Greys and Enniskilleners go right at the centre. The Russian line brings forward each wing as our cavalry advance, and threatens to annihilate them as they pass on. The Greys rush on with a cheer that thrills through every heart; the wild shout of the Enniskilleners rises through the air as, like a flash of lightning, they pierce through the masses of Russians. The Greys and Enniskilleners disappear in the midst of the quivering and shaken columns. In another moment they emerged, and dashed on against the second line, which was advancing to retrieve the fortunes of the first, "They are lost!" was the exclamation of many. With unabated fire the heroes dashed at the enemy. The first line of the Russians, which had been nearly smashed by the charge, and had fled at one flank and

towards the centre, were returning to swallow up our handful of men. By sheer steel and courage, Enniskillener and Scot were winning their desperate way through the enemy's squadrons, and already grey horses and red coats had appeared at the rear of the second mass, when, with irresistible force, like one bolt from a bow, the 1st Royals, the 4th Dragoon Guards, and the 5th rushed at the remnant of the first line, went through it as if made of pasteboard, and dashing on the second line of the Russians as they were still disordered by the terrible assault of the Greys and Enniskilleners, put them to utter rout.

The loss in this brilliant triumph was not severe, but by some misconception of Lord Raglan's orders, Lord Lucan conceived that he was to attack the enemy at all hazards. The Russians had formed again with additional numbers, with artillery in front and upon both flanks. The British numbered only 600 sabres, under Lord Cardigan. "We," says the writer, "could scarcely believe the evidence of our senses. Surely that handful of men are not going to charge an army in position!" They advanced in two lines, quickening their pace as they closed towards the enemy. At the distance of about 1000 yards, the whole line of the Russians belched forth from thirty iron mouths a flood of smoke and flame, through which hissed the deadly balls. The first line is broken, it is joined by the second, they never halt nor check their speed an instant; with diminished ranks, and a halo of flashing steel above their heads, and a cheer—the death-cry of many a noble fellow—they flew into the smoke of the batteries. Through the clouds of smoke we could see their sabres flashing as they rode up to the guns, and dashed between them, cutting down the gunners as they stood. To our delight we saw them returning, after breaking through a column of infantry, and scattering them like chaff. At the very moment when they were about to return, an enormous mass of lancers was hurled on their flank. Colonel Shewell saw their danger, and rode his few men straight at them. The other regiments turned, and engaged in desperate encounter. With courage too great almost for credence, they were breaking their way through the columns which enveloped them, when there took place an act of atrocity without parallel in the warfare of civilized nations. The Russian gunners, when the storm of cavalry had passed, had returned to their guns. They saw their own cavalry mingled with troopers who had just ridden on them, and to the eternal disgrace of the Russian name, the miscreants poured a volley of grape and canister on the mass of struggling men and horses, mingling friend and foe in one common ruin. Of the 607 who went into action, only 198 returned.

A brilliant encounter took place the following day. The enemy from Sebastopol, with a large force of infantry, cavalry, and artillery, attacked the division commanded by Sir de Lacy Evans, who speedily defeated them. In the meantime the siege went steadily forward. Reduced in numbers, but with undiminished courage, this band of heroes had again to fight a battle against almost overwhelming numbers; the struggle lasting the whole day, when the enemy retreated with the loss of from 8,000 to 9,000 men. On the 5th of November, 1854, was fought the great battle of Inkerman, a day of immortal honour for the British army, emphatically called the "Soldier's battle"—a series of hand-to-hand fights, of desperate assaults and rallies, till our old supremacy was triumphantly asserted, and the battalions of the Czar gave way before our steady courage and the chivalrous fire of France. Of the British 462 were killed, and 1,952 wounded. In this tremendous conflict, where 8,000, of whom many had been all night in the trenches, kept 45,000 Russians at bay for three hours, Sir G. Cathcart, Brigadiers-General Strangeways and Goldie fell. The Russians left nearly 5,000 dead upon the field of battle, On the 14th, a hurricane, more tremendous than was ever remembered in the Black Sea, occurred, and caused the most fearful destruction. Tents were thrown down, houses unroofed, roads rendered impassable, and the men exposed to the bitterest cold and driving sleet and rain. Eleven transports were wrecked off Balaclava. The "Prince," a vessel of 2,700 tons, full of the most valuable stores, was driven on the rocks. From the middle of November, the army, during a period of many weeks, suffered from want of clothing, dysentry, and overwork, but which was endured with a fortitude and heroism unsurpassed in the annals of war, without those appliances proper for the treatment of the sick and wounded. During the winter the Russians were indefatigable in adding new works, raising walls of earth twelve feet high and twenty feet thick. Numerous encounters took place against the parallels and trenches of the Allies. On the 22nd and 23rd of the following May there were desperate actions between the French and Russians. On the first night the French were repulsed; on the second they were successful, but as the enemy were enabled to enfilade their position, they were ordered to retire from this sanguinary conflict, after a contest of six hours.

The Baltic fleet, under Admiral Dundas, put to sea, and was soon joined by the French fleet. The first important occurence which ensued produced a great sensation at home. A flag of truce had been violated, and an English boat's crew

slaughtered or made prisoners at a Russian station in the Baltic. The deed is called "the massacre of Hango," and will be so called in every future history. The crew were landing prisoners, and exhibited the white flag. Not to respect a flag of truce is an indelible disgrace; but not to respect it when hoisted in the performance of a friendly act, to make no demand for surrender, to butcher Englishmen in cold blood, and even slaughter their own men who were our prisoners, was a diabolical act, which no subsequent attempt at explanation can efface.

Our fleet in the Black Sea had little to do towards the advancement of the fall of Sebastopol; but they held the Russian fleet in blockade. It was known, however, that from the Sea of Azoff vast supplies were received for the Russian army, and Kertch was the great emporium of that commerce, Kertch fell on the 27th of May at a blow, and the allied forces were in possession of the key to one of the chief approaches to the Russian territory. Town after town at once fell; store-ships, merchant vessels, magazines, to an almost fabulous amount were captured or destroyed.

On the 6th of June the third bombardment of Sebastopol commenced. On the 7th the British troops assaulted the Quarries in front of the Redan with perfect success, and maintained themselves in them in spite of repeated attacks of the enemy to dislodge them. On the 17th a heavy fire was opened from all the batteries, English and French, and continued throughout the day. The projected assault, however, failed. General Pellissier had changed his plan at the moment of execution. The French began their operations prematurely. Hardly had their heads of columns advanced when they were assailed by a shower of balls and grape. This overwhelming fire, was not only from the works we wanted to carry, but also from the enemy's ships, which arrived with full steam on. "It became," says General Pellissier, "impossible for our soldiers to march forward, but not one made a single step in retreat." "Our Allies also," continues General Pellissier, "had encountered such obstacles in their attack upon the Great Redan, and had met with such a fire of grape that, in spite of their well-known tenacity, they had also been compelled to make a movement of retreat; I gave orders, therefore to return to the trenches, which operation was effected without pursuit by the enemy." Thus ended this eventful 18th of June, a day on which it was hoped that a great success, effected by the combined armies, would wipe out whatever painful remembrances were associated with the anniversary of Waterloo. Within ten days of this unsuccessful assault Lord Raglan died. What a time of anxiety had this noble heart endured for many months?

What sufferings had he witnessed—what struggles had he made against difficulties and dangers! How many of his brave companions-in-arms had fallen in the field! He was almost the last of the race of those who had been trained with him in the great war against an enemy with whom we were now in strict alliance. He had the courage of a hero, but he had also the courtesy of the chivalric ages.

On the 16th of August was fought the great battle of the Tchernaya. This battle, like that of Inkerman, was an attempt to force the Allies by the weight of overwhelming numbers; but Inkerman was won by the bayonet; this by the rifle. This victory is wholly due to the French and Sardinians, though some assistance was rendered by an English battery,

On the 5th of September the French opened the last great bombardment of Sebastopol. On the 6th the English joined the French in one tremendous cannonade, which was continued on the 7th, and fires within the town and ships burning in the harbour showed the effect of this infernal fire, as the Russian commander called it. This contest lasted till half-past four of the 8th, when the Malakoff was carried. Three other great attacks were unsuccessful. As soon as it became night fires burst forth on every side, mines exploded, magazines of powder were blown into the air,—the enemy were evacuating Sebastopol! During the night the Russians destroyed the works and great establishments which had been accumulating for so many years. They sank all their ships, except their steamers, broke up and pulled after them the bridge of boats which communicated with the north side, abandoning to us the town, suburbs, and everything on the south side of the roadstead. There had been but little opportunity of action afforded to our magnificent fleet, but a vigilant blockade which confined the Russian navies to their inaccessible harbour.

The destruction of Bomarsund was the great exploit of 1854; Sweaborg of 1855. Sixteen English bomb vessels, five French, and a battery of four mortars opened fire against Sweaborg, during which the town appeared like a fiery furnace. The magazine filled with powder and shell blew up, destroying nearly the whole place; the fire, which continued its ravages, destroying an immense quantity of stores and government establishments. On the side of the Allies only one English sailor was killed, and a few slightly wounded. Kilburn was attacked on the 17th of October, 1855, and taken.

Kars, situated in Turkish Armenia, had been for a considerable time blockaded by a Russian army of 35,000 men, but the place had the advantage of being under the guidance

of some English officers who had distinguished themselves in the East The Russians, thinking to surprise the garrison, had advanced through a mist at the dawning of the day, with their usual steady pace, but on getting within range they were saluted with a crushing fire of artillery from all points of the line. With loud huzzahs the Russian infantry rushed up the hill on the redoubts and breastworks, which poured forth a tremendous fire of musketry and rifles that told with a fearful effect upon the close columns of attack. After long and desperate fighting they were completely broken, and sent headlong down the hill, leaving 850 dead on the field of battle, besides those carried off by their companions. The central column was also repulsed in all its attacks, and a terrible havoc made in their ranks. In the meantime the right wing of the Russians turned the left flank of the Talmarsh defences, and penetrated behind our position. Lieutenant Lake immediately sent a part of the reserve to the assistance of the defenders of the Talmarsh, and two battalions were moved across the flying bridge and upon the rocky heights. These columns, hidden from the enemy by the rocky nature of the ground, opened fire, drove back the enemy's reserves, and charged with the bayonet. The whole of their infantry and artillery then broke and fled down the hill, under a murderous fire of musketry, after a combat of seven hours. While this long and terrible encounter was going on, the eastern position was the scene of a no less severe contest. Fort Lake, the key of the whole position, which was defended by a small irregular force, was attacked and carried by assault, As soon as it was light, General Williams dispatched some companies of rifles, and these with some from Fort Lake charged the Russians and drove them out of the batteries at the point of the bayonet The enemy left more than 5,000 dead on the field of battle; the wounded and prisoners taken were only 140, while those carried off were said to be upwards of 7,000. But this victory answered no other purpose than to prove the bravery of the garrison, and the eminent abilities of the English officers. Famine came to do what the enemy could not. The garrison, reduced to extremity and looking in vain for long-expected succour, was compelled to surrender on the 25th of November to the Russian general, Mouravieff. Upon the return of General Williams and his brother officers to England, Parliament voted him an annuity of £1,000 for life, and the Queen bestowed upon him the dignity of Baronet.

Negotiations for peace were now proposed by Russia, an armistice took place, and after the 29th of February, 1856, the war in the Crimea was practically at an end. According to the terms of the Treaty of Peace, signed at Paris on

the 30th of March, all the territories acquired during the war were to be reciprocally evacuated; all prisoners of war on either side to be given up; the independence and territorial integrity of the Ottoman Empire to be guaranteed; the Christians to be protected; that so long as the Porte is at peace, no foreign ships of war to be admitted into the Straits; the Black Sea to be neutralized; its waters and ports to be thrown open to the mercantile marine of every nation. The Emperor of Russia and the Sultan engage not to establish or maintain any military or maritime arsenal upon that coast; the free navigation to be secured, The Emperor of Russia consents to the rectification of his frontier in Bessarabia; the Principalities of Wallachia and Moldavia to continue under the suzerainty of the Porte. Thus ended this short but most bloody and expensive war. It was stated by Lord Panmure, that from the 19th of September, 1854, to the 31st of March, 1856, the total loss of our army by death was 270 officers, and 19,314 men. Of these, not more than 4,000 fell in battle or died from the wounds received in actual warfare. This loss does not include that of the navy. The French loss was estimated at 63,500. The destruction of life in the Russian army has been calculated by some at half-a-million, chiefly worn out in traversing the vast distances of the empire to reach the seat of war.

To return to our Indian empire. On the 7th of February, 1856, the deposition of the King of Oude was proclaimed, and the annexation of his kingdom to the British possessions in India. The King of Oude retired upon a pension of £120,000. On May 13th, the Marquis Dalhousie arrived in England, and Viscount Canning assumed the office of Governor-General in his place.

In the latter part of the year a small vessel, bearing the British flag, was boarded by a Chinese force at anchor near Canton, and twelve of the crew were seized. The Chinese Governor of Canton refusing to apologise, hostile proceedings followed. The forts were attacked and taken. The fortifications of Canton were stormed, and a large number of war-junks burned. Lord Elgin was subsequently sent with a fleet and troops to arrange matters, and a treaty was concluded.

On the 1st of November, 1856, war was declared against Persia in consequence of the Shah having sent an army to Herat and besieged that city, in violation of a treaty with England. A body of troops were sent under General Stalker, who captured Bushire; and on the 15th of January, 1857, General Outram sailed from Bombay with additional troops, and took the command, and defeated the Persian army at Mohammerah. A treaty of peace was made and signed at Paris on the 5th of March, and hostilities ceased. On t

29th of May, Colonel Havelock arrived at Bombay from the Persian Gulf, with the 78th Highlanders and the Queen's 64th. On the 17th of June, Colonel Havelock reached Calcutta, and was at once raised to the rank of brigadier-general, and sent to relieve Sir Hugh Wheeler at Cawnpore, and to support Sir H. Lawrence at Lucknow, who had sent news of the massacre at Cawnpore. On the 7th of July, General Havelock left Allahabad with 1000 European troops, 150 Sikhs, and 30 irregular cavalry. He was joined by Major Renaud, and their united force came up to the enemy's strongly entrenched camp at Futtehpoor of 3500 troops and 11 guns. Major Renaud's column on that day had marched nineteen miles, and General Havelock's twenty-four miles, under intense heat. The general would gladly have given the men rest, but the enemy advanced to Futtehpoor, and he attacked them with artillery and Enfield rifles. They were soon scattered, flying in confusion towards Cawnpore, with the loss of eleven guns and all their ammunition and baggage. On the 15th, the enemy was defeated at Gong, and again at Pandoo Nordee. On the 16th, the enraged Nana murdered all the women and children in his custody, and flung their mangled bodies into a well. On the same day General Havelock advanced against the insurgents, and defeated them utterly, taking six guns, and killing a large number of their men. Early the next morning, Nana Sahib blew up the Cawnpore magazine, and retreated to Bithour. Having rested his weary troops for a single day, the general marched against Bithoor, where Nana had many guns, and about 5,000 troops. They had fled, however over the Ganges before the arrival of the British troops. Bithoor was taken without opposition, and the Nana's palace burnt. In nine days Havelock had fought and won four battles, and taken forty guns. Havelock then crossed the Ganges, and with 1500 men commenced a series of the most persevering attempts to relieve Lucknow; but the rainy season was at its height, the country overflowed, and the heat intense. He beat the enemy at Unao and at Busserut Gunge, on the road to Lucknow, but sickness among his men obliged him to return as far as Munghowar. Again he began his march to Lucknow on the 4th of August, and on the 5th defeated the enemy, but cholera struck down his exhausted soldiers, and again he was compelled to withdraw to Munghowar. The enemy threatening his communication with Cawnpore, he again advanced against them, beat them, and took two guns, but with a loss of 140 men. The small relieving army was now compelled to take for some time the rest they so much needed, and to leave the garrison at Lucknow to struggle on for some weeks longer.

The year 1857 is sadly distinguished by the mutiny of the Bengal army. There were at first mutinies of single regiments, which were suppressed; but, on the 10th of May, the 3rd regiment of Bengal cavalry mutinied, and was joined by two regiments of infantry. After committing murders and appalling atrocities, they marched to Delhi, where they were joined by other native regiments, and similar acts of barbarity were perpetrated. The mutineers proclaimed the old King of Delhi Emperor of Hindostan. On the 20th May, General Anson arrived before Delhi with a body of British troops, but died of cholera on the 27th. On the 8th of June, Sir H. Barnard entered the cantonments before Delhi, with about 4000 troops, and succeeded General Anson in the command; but, on the 5th of July, he also died of cholera. General Reid then took the command. He was obliged to resign from illness, and was succeeded by General Wilson. In September, General Nicholson arrived with reinforcements and a siege train; General Wilson then ordered the assault of Delhi. After continued fighting from the 14th to the 21st, the British forces gained complete possession of the city. The loss in killed and wounded amounted to 1178. During these operations, mutinies in various places occurred. At Lucknow, three native regiments of infantry and one of cavalry took place. They were attacked by Sir H. Lawrence, and dispersed. At Cawnpore, Sir H. Wheeler was wounded in a sally, and died on the 21st, upon which the small force capitulated to Nana Sahib. They were allowed to embark in boats, but were basely fired upon, and nearly all murdered. General Havelock marched from Allahabad to Cawnpore with about 2000 European troops, and defeated the insurgents under Nana, who blew up the magazines and retreated to Bithoor. General Havelock pursued him, defeated him, taking twenty guns, and set fire to the place. On the 18th August, General Havelock operating with his small force between Cawnpore and Lucknow, gained his ninth victory, and, arriving at Lucknow, relieved the Europeans besieged in the Residency, carrying the enemy's entrenchments.

General Outram, on his arrival at Calcutta, was appointed Chief Commissioner of Oude, and to the chief command of the Cawnpore and Dinapore stations. He resigned, however, the command of the relieving army to General Havelock, and generously offered his military services as a volunteer. The army crossed the Ganges on the 19th September, and reached Alum Bagh on the 23rd, whence they drove the enemy. On the 25th, the army left Alum Bagh in march for the Residency, and late in the evening of the same day, after a succession of desperate conflicts among loopholed houses, the Residency was reached. The hopes of the garrison were a length realised, but it became at once obvious that to retur

with the sick and wounded, children and women was impossible, and it was therefore determined to wait for further relief. General Outram now assumed the command-in-chief. Colonel Ingils with the old garrison remaining in the Residency, and General Havelock with the new one.

Sir Colin Campbell having been appointed Commander-in-Chief of the Forces in India, arrived at Calcutta on the 14th August. The relieving army of Lucknow being now besieged in the Residency, Sir C. Campbell left Calcutta and arrived at Cawnpore on 3rd November. He crossed the Ganges on the 9th. Communication between the Residency and Alum Bagh, a distance of four miles, was established, and Mr. Kavanagh, disguised as a native, reached the camp in safety. Early on the 16th, a very strong and large building, full of sepoys, was taken after a deadly struggle of some hours' duration, in which about 2,000 men were slain, nearly all sepoys. Early next morning, the Motee Munzil and the Mess House were taken, and Outram and Havelock made their way to Sir C. Campbell, and soon afterwards the enemy was entirely dislodged. On the same day Sir Colin announced that the Residency must be evacuated. On the 18th, heavy batteries were opened against the enemy's positions, as if for the purpose of assault, and continued during the 19th, on the afternoon and night of which day all the women and children, with the sick and wounded, were removed silently and safely to the Dilkoosha, leaving only the fighting men in the garrison. On the 20th, 21st, and 22nd, the preparations for evacuating the position were continued. All the artillery was gradually withdrawn, until, by the evening of the 22nd, only a few pieces remained mounted. Treasure to the amount of £250,000, which had been buried, was dug up and removed, with a quantity of jewels of the Ex-King of Oude. At midnight of the 22nd, the garrison silently marched out to the Dilkoosha, without the loss of a single individual. On the 26th, arrangements were made for leaving General Outram's division to watch the insurgents at Lucknow, and on the 27th Sir Colin marched towards Cawnpore himself, escorting with General Grant's division, the sick and wounded, the men, women and children, and the treasure. After a march of 17 miles they encamped at Bunnee, and on the 28th a fatiguing march of about 30 miles brought the army to within two miles of the east bank of the Ganges, which was crossed by a bridge of boats, and the whole of the fugitives were sent under an escort on their way to Allahabad by means of the railway at Ranee Gunge, from whence they reached Allahabad in two hours.

On the 6th November, Sir Colin attacked the Gwalior Contingent, and defeated it, with the loss of 16 guns and a vast quantity of ammunition, stores, bullocks and baggage.

On the 21st, four days after he had received the tidings of his having been created a Knight Commander of the Bath, Sir H. Havelock was seized with dysentry and died on the 25th. The Queen created him a baronet on the 27th, which was two days after his death, but the title was transferred to his son.

Sir C. Campbell, having thus successfully rescued the garrison, immediately prepared for the final conquest of Lucknow. Meantime the enemy erected additional defences. They attacked Sir J. Outram at Alum Bagh several times in force, but were driven back with loss. During this time a large quantity of gold and silver plate and other treasure was got up from the wells at Bithoor. On the second of January, 1858, while the engineers were repairing a bridge near Futtehghur, a large body of the enemy were discovered preparing to attack them. They were dispersed and lost 8 guns, and on the 23rd General Roberts took the strong fortress of Awah, in Rajpootana. A few days after, Sir H, Ross relieved Sangor, in Central India, which had been invested for more than six months.

On the 11th February, Sir C. Campbell crossed the Ganges with his whole force of 50,000 men with 160 guns. On the 8th March the siege commenced. On the 16th, the rebels began to leave the city. Moosel Bagh, the last post of the enemy, was taken on the 19th, and the capture of Lucknow was then complete. About 2,000 of the enemy were slain, and 117 guns taken. The loss of the British was very small; the artillery chiefly had done the work. Among the killed was Major Hodson, who took prisoner the King of Delhi. Sir W. Peel, the distinguished leader of the naval brigade, was wounded, and afterwards died of the smallpox. He was the third son of the late Sir Robert Peel.

The city of Delhi and the city of Lucknow having been captured, and the masses of mutineers broken and dispersed, the suppression of the great mutiny may be considered to have been completed.

In China, a vessel named the "Arrow" was boarded while at anchor near Canton by a Chinese officer and a party of soldiers, who seized 12 of the crew, carried them away, and hauled down the British flag. Yeh, the Chinese High Commissioner, refusing to make any apology, the forts in the Canton River were attacked and taken, the fortifications of Canton stormed, the city entered, and a large number of war junks burnt. The Chinese having attempted to destroy the British ships by junks filled with combustibles, the whole of the Chinese war junks were destroyed. Lord Elgin was sent out as Her Majesty's Ambassador Extraordinary to the Emperor of China, and Baron

Gros arrived at Hong Kong as Ambassador from the Emperor of the French. On the 16th December, 1857, the large island of Honan was occupied by British and French troops. Lord Elgin had a considerable fleet of ships of war and gun-boats. The land forces consisted of 800 British soldiers, 2,500 marines, and 1,500 naval brigade. The French troops and sailors amounted to about 900. After the bombardment of the city, the assault was made in three divisions, two English and one French. The walls were breached and captured, and the city was entirely in the power of the Allies on the afternoon of the 29th. Subsequently three columns of English forces and one of French entered the city; one captured the Deputy-Governor, a second column took possession of the treasury, whence were taken 52 boxes of dollars and 68 packages of Sycee silver, and the French column seized the Tartar General. Mr. Parkes, the Consul, and Commodore Elliot, with 100 sailors, conducted the search for Yeh, who was discovered, seized, and sent a prisoner on board the "Inflexible," and the city of Canton was held as a guarantee till the demands of the Allies should be satisfied. On the 29th of April, 1858, the allied fleet of 19 vessels lay at anchor in the Peiho, 11 miles from the mouth of the river, and 140 miles from Pekin. At that point a bar of mud crosses the river, over which only gun-boats could pass. The gun-boats crossed the bar, and the Chinese batteries opened fire but were soon silenced and taken, and the guns spiked, with a loss to the Allies of 11 killed and 77 wounded. The boats then advanced up the river, joined by the other English gun-boats from Hong Kong, and on the 20th May the expedition arrived at Tien-Tsin, 80 miles from Pekin.

The Emperor of China sent two commissioners to Tien-Tsin, and the treaty of peace between Great Britain and China was signed on the 26th June, 1858. The principal articles with Great Britian are, that there shall be a British and Chinese minister at the Courts of Pekin and St. James's respectively; that Christianity shall be tolerated throughout the Chinese Empire, and its ministers protected; that additional specified ports shall be opened for commerce; that British subjects shall be allowed, with a Consul's passport, to visit any part of the Chinese Empire, and that British ships of war may visit any of the Chinese ports.

Lord Elgin has since paid a visit to the Emperor of Japan, and concluded a treaty with him, dated August 26th, 1858, which provides for commercial intercourse between the two nations.

ECCLESIASTICAL AFFAIRS.

(Continued from p. 361.)

A FEW years after the passing of the Emancipation Act," began what is usually called the Oxford movement." Converts have always, from time to time, been received into the Catholic Church, but in the Oxford movement the conversions have not been merely by two or three, but by at least 200 of the Anglican clergymen alone. The reception of many French clergymen, who had sought a refuge in our country from the horrors of the French revolution, was apparently the seed which fructified in the hearts of many of our countrymen. The result was the conversion of Dr. Newman, of Dr. Manning, of Canon Oakley, of Father Faber, of Mr. Wilberforce, of Mr. Ward, who published the "Ideal of a Christian Church," in which he exposed the hollowness of Protestantism, and declared that he maintained all the doctrines of the Council of Trent.

It was already evident that the real leader of those who were sincere in their search was Dr. Newman. His parochial sermons were now issuing from the press. So great was his influence that the "Times," the alternate leader and follower of public opinion, invited him to write in its columns. As time went on, many of his friends and followers began to be more and more convinced of the real nature of the Catholic Church, and one after another, sought refuge in the one Fold. At last came the "Tract 90," and the whole country was thrown into a state of agitation.

It affirmed, that the Thirty Nine Articles were susceptible of a Catholic interpretation, and could be subscribed by a person acknowledging all the dogmas of the Council of Trent. Perceiving the right of Rome to their entire submission to her authority, they still dreamed for awhile of a union between the Church of England and the Catholic Church, in which among other things the observance of celibacy in the clergy was to be sacrificed. The Catholics, not only of England, but on the continent, were deeply moved at their struggles, but at length they were consoled. Dr. Newman, it is said, was really in doubt, but Dr. Wiseman's articles on the "Donatists" removed his hesitation, and in a short time the sacrifice of benefices, preferments, position and friends was made, and Dr. Newman and his chosen few were safe in the bosom of the One Holy Catholic Church. Their conversion was followed by hundreds. The great learning of many of these converts is well known, and the public acknowledgmen

of Dr. Newman's acquirements on the Achilli trial must be still fresh in every one's memory.

To Father Faber and some of the Oratorians, the devoted children of St. Philip Neri, we owe the two flourishing houses and Churches at Brompton and Edgbaston, and to Dr. Newman the constructing the University of Dublin.

During the earlier part of the "Oxford movement," the Vicars Apostolic for England were Dr. Walsh, Dr. Baines, Dr. Griffith and Dr. Briggs. In 1840 the number of Vicars Apostolic had been increased to eight, the midland district having been divided into two: viz., the central and eastern, and the northern into three—the Northern, Lancashire and Yorkshire. Wales was made a separate vicariate. This change was the forerunner of one far more important—the restoration of the Hierarchy. This restoration had been long desired. The Apostolic Vicars had joined in this desire, and a memorial was sent to His Holiness Pius the Ninth. A Congregation of Cardinals was called, and discussed, and His Holiness determined to grant it. As a preparatory step, Dr. Walsh, then the senior Vicar Apostolic, was elected to be the first Archbishop of Westminster, but before the arrangements could be completed Dr. Walsh had breathed his last. Soon after his death, the Holy See had finished its arrangements for the Hierarchy, and Pius the Ninth decreed that "The Hierarchy of Bishops Ordinary," taking their titles from their sees, should again flourish in the Kingdom of England. The whole kingdom, including Wales, was formed into one province, consisting of the metropolitan see of Westminster and its twelve suffragan sees of Southwark, Plymouth, Clifton, St. David's, and Newport, Shrewsbury, Liverpool, Salford, Hexham, Beverley, Nottingham, Birmingham, and Northampton, on September 30th, 1850.

No sooner was the Hierarchy established than the country was in a flame; Lord John Russell addressed a letter on the subject to the Bishop of Durham; a meeting of the clergy of the Established Church, under the presidency of the Bishop of Oxford, was held to protest against it; another meeting was held at Guildhall for the same purpose. All this did not prevent the enthronement of Cardinal Wiseman as Archbishop of Westminster, which took place at St. George's Cathedral on the 4th of December, 1850, to the great joy of the whole Catholic population.

The low church party, and many of other sects, finding all their meetings and diatribes of no avail, consulted the better part of wisdom, and forbore public agitation. The town council of Leeds passed a resolution to the effect that Parliament ought not to sanction any interference with the rights and liberties of the Roman Catholics of England. On

the opening of Parliament in 1851, mention was made of "the recent assumption of certain ecclesiastical titles, which had excited strong feelings in the country. Lord Stanley, commenting upon this so-called Papal aggression, said, "This was no question of religious controversy, but it was this, should the Roman Catholic Church be permitted to exercise any interference with the government of the country. A noble lord, Lord J. Russell, had written a letter, which had kindled a great commotion in the country. In the year 1829, there were certain securities introduced into the great measure of Emancipation. If there are any of them which, whilst they are offensive to the Roman Catholics, yet give no security to the interests of Protestantism, any which are incapable of being enforced, I say sweep them off at once. But if there are any that do not reach any encroachment upon our liberties by the See of Rome, which at the time of the passing of the act were never contemplated, then it would be a violation of the liberties of the Roman Catholics that these securities should be made effectual.

Lord Camoys said, "He was a Roman Catholic, as his forefathers had been for centuries, but at the same time he was an Englishman, and the rights and liberties of England were as dear to him as to any of their lordships. He acknowleged the supremacy of the Pope over the Roman Catholics of this country, but in spiritual matters only."

In the Commons, Mr. Roebuck expressed the pain he felt at finding an administration calling itself liberal about to take a backward step. He briefly reviewed the history of Catholic Emancipation, and the principles upon which it was founded, which were violated by legislation against religious distinctions granted by the Pope. Where was the aggression upon Her Majesty's prerogative? This was solely an exercise of spiritual authority. The catholics had been led to believe by the acts of the legislature and the executive government that what had been done could be legally done. After they had been thus lured on, was it wise or worthy of the noble lord, so long the advocate of civil and religious liberty, to aid a cry which had its source in some of the vilest passions in the old puritanical bigotry of England. The Earl of Arundel and Surrey said he would oppose any attack upon the liberty of the Roman Catholic Church, from whatever quarter it might come. Mr. Fagan altogether dissented from the assertion in the "Speech," that ecclesiastical titles had been conferred by a foreign power. They had been conferred by the Pope as spiritual head of the Church, and not as Sovereign of the Roman States. Mr. Disraeli said, that when that letter was written much more was contemplated than the mere preventing of the assumption by Cardin

Wiseman of a territorial title. That the aggression was insidious he denied; on the contrary, the Pope had only done what the noble lord had said there was no harm in doing, and what had long ago been done in Ireland with the noble lord's full consent.

On the 7th February, Lord John Russell brought in his bill. The introduction was voted by a majority of 395 to 63, Subsequently, Lord Lansdowne in the Lords, and Lord J. Russell in the Commons, announced the resignation of the ministry, ostensibly on account of their being left in a minority upon the franchise bill; but in reality, as Lord Stanley said, upon their mode of dealing with the Papal Aggression bill and the letter of Lord J. Russell.

After various attempts to form a ministry, all of which failed, in obedience to her Majesty's invitation, and in conformity with the advice of the Duke of Wellington, the former ministry resumed their places. The adjourned debate was opened by Sir Robert Peel (who spoke in the Commons for the first time). He declared himself an advocate for perfect toleration, and was prepared to resist all interference with the merely spiritual doctrine and discipline of the Roman Catholic Church. Mr. H. Drummond, whose coarse and profane speech produced a violent excitement in the House, called up the Earl of Arundel, who, with considerable emotion appealed to the Speaker, whether Mr. Drummond had not transgressed the rules of order. The Speaker decided, that as nothing personal had been spoken, Mr. Drummond was not out of order, but hoped that members would refrain from expressions which might cause irritation. During the delivery of Mr. Drummond's speech, he was interrupted by groans, cock-crowing, exclamations of of Oh! Oh! and all sorts of noise. Sir J. Graham arose, and began by condemning, in strong language the tone of the previous speech. "I have seen," said he, "an accomplished gentleman and scholar, so much heated by the subject we are now discussing, as entirely to forget what, I must say, is due to the feelings of a large body sitting in this House on terms of perfect equality. I will not sully my lips by repeating the words which fell from him, not only as respects the individual honour of members of this House with reference to their veracity, but also as respects, what I shudder to think of, the allusion he made to the female relatives of those gentlemen who had devoted themselves to the service of God, according to their conscience, in lives of seclusion and chastity." These remarks were received with loud cheers; and then Sir James proceeded to say, that his objections to the bill were, that it was the introduction of a penal enactment, and the reversal of a policy,, and that by

striking at territorial titles, it would put down an organised episcopacy in Ireland, and prevent meetings in Synod of Roman Catholic prelates. Sir James quoted Lord Clarendon's letter, in which these titles had been distinctly recognised; and also a speech of Sir J. Romilly, who had said, that the Pope might divide the country into bishoprics and archbishoprics. The passing of this bill would be a repeal of the Emancipation Act, and then the Dissenters must look about them. Synods were to be proscribed, but if laymen and dissenting ministers could meet, why should Roman Catholic bishops be interdicted? Step by step we should be led by this measure to the destruction, not only of religious, but of civil liberty. Lord John Russell hoped the House would indulge him while he defended the general principles of the bill. If the Government should now recede, the friends of liberty throughout Europe would think, that in addition to all other conquests, the Court of Rome had obtained a conquest over the minds of the House of Commons in England. After two more adjournments the bill was read a third time, and the Speaker put the question, "That the bill do pass," but no one rose; he paused twice, still no one rose. Then the division was taken. For the motion, 263; against it, 46; after which the bill was sent up to the Lords, where it was passed, and received the Royal assent, on the 1st of August, and on the 8th Parliament was prorogued until the 4th of September.

STATISTICS OF THE CATHOLIC CHURCH IN 1859.

Chapels and churches where mass is said in England and Wales, 763; in Scotland, 183. Secular clergymen and regulars in England and Wales, 1,077. In Scotland, 154 convents and religious houses, 37 and 123 respectively. Colleges 12: viz., St. Edmund's, near Ware, Herts; Benedictine St. Gregory, Downside, near Bath; Stoneyhurst, Lancashire (Jesuits); St. Mary's, Oscott, Staffordshire; St. Cuthbert's, Ushaw, Durham; St. Laurence's (Benedictine), Ampleforth, Yorkshire; St. Edward's, Lancashire; Mount St. Mary's, Derbyshire; Immaculate Conception, Ratcliffe, Leicestershire; St. Bruno's, Flintshire (Jesuit); St. Mary's, Glasgow; St. Mary's, Blairs, Kincardineshire. Principal convents:—Hammersmith, Newhall, Taunton, Roehampton, Princethorpe, York, East Bergholt, St. Leonard's-on-Sea, Sussex, Clapham, Sisters of Mercy, 3 in London, and 8 in other counties.

(*Continued from p.* 381.)

In the year 1847, the failure of the potato crop still continuing, her Majesty, in her speech in Parliament, called attention to the dearth of provisions which prevailed in Ireland, and the consequent increase of mortality among the poorer classes, and recommended to the serious attention of Parliament, whether by increasing the facilities of importing corn, the supply of food might not be beneficially augmented. Lord John Russell proposed a resolution for suspending the Corn-Importation Act till the 1st September, which was agreed to and passed; and one to suspend the Navigation Act was also passed the same day. Lord J. Russell subsequently made a statement of what had occurred during the recess of Parliament, of the vast numbers employed, the enormous expenses, and the inadequacy of the means adopted to relieve the increasing destitution. He then proposed the formation of relief committees with power to administer funds arising from subscriptions and rates, government donations, the establishment of soup-kitchens, and giving food to the destitute without exacting work in return, half the advance made by government to be remitted as the instalments were paid, the extension of time for the repayment of advances made to proprietors from ten to twenty years, and a new advance of £50,000 to furnish seed for sowing the land, the expenditure of £1,000.000 in reclaiming waste lands, which were to be purchased from the proprietors and resold or let to tenants in portions of from 25 to 50 acres, and a poor-law giving out-door relief to the infirm and helpless; also, bills to facilitate the sale of encumbered estates, and to convert leaseholds renewable for ever into freeholds. Leave was given to bring in those bills. On the 22nd of February the Chancellor of the Exchequer made his financial statement. He said that the people were never so well able to bear the extraordinary demands made upon them. The balances in the exchequer for the year 1847 were £9,000,000. The sum required to meet the distress in Ireland he estimated at £10,000,000; of this £2,000,000 has been already advanced, the remainder he proposed to borrow on Exchequer bills, and pay the interest out of the ordinary revenue of the country. After a long debate the resolution was agreed to. On the question of the Poor Relief Bill in Ireland, Lord J. Russell called attention to the rapid increase of the expenditure, which now amounted to £1,000,000 a month. On the 15th of April, 1847, the House met in the new palace, and on the 16th the Irish Poor Relief Bill was read a third time and passed.

One of the most important acts of the session of 1850 was the Navigation Bill, on which her Majesty, in her opening speech, expressed a hope that our example would lead to a general diminution of the obstacles that prevent a free intercourse by sea between the nations of the world. With reference to Ireland, the speech recorded her Majesty's loyal reception in that country, and dwelt with sympathy on the effects of the late years of scarcity, and concluded by thanking Divine Providence for having hitherto preserved this kingdom from the wars and convulsions that had for the last two years prevailed on the continent of Europe. Lord J. Russell then made a statement of the colonial policy of the government. As to Canada, he said, its constitution was well known, and it was only necesssry for him to say, in reference to the idle threats of annexation to the United States, that the discontented parties were too well aware of the determined will of the Sovereign and her advisers to think they would ever be permitted to execute their threats. With regard to the Cape colony, it had been resolved to institute a representative government. New South Wales to have a single council, with the power hereafter of demanding two Chambers, if it wished. Port Philip to be separated from New South Wales; free institutions into Van Dieman's Land; and South Australia to have a representative body. In New Zealand, a legislative system had been introduced, which was to be followed by a representative one. Barbadoes and Jamaica had long enjoyed their own governments. Trinidad and the Mauritius were to have municipal councils in aid of their Executives. Malta to have elective members added to its council; the third reading passed on the 13th of May.

In the opening of the Parliament for the year 1856, her Majesty said, "Since the close of the last session, Sebastopol, the great stronghold of Russia in the Black Sea, has yielded to the persevering constancy and daring bravery of the allied forces; but while determined to omit no effort which could give vigour to the operations of the war, I have deemed it my duty not to decline any overtures which might afford a prospect of a safe and honourable peace, and I have the satisfaction to inform you that conditions have been agreed upon, which, I hope, may prove the foundation of a general treaty of peace. Negociations for such a treaty will shortly be opened at Paris." It was likewise stated in the speech, that "a treaty had been made with the King of Norway and Sweden, tending to the preservation of the balance of power in that part of Europe. On the 39th of March the Treaty of peace was signed at Paris. It guarantees the integrity c Turkey by the English, French, and Austrian governments

On the 8th of February, 1858, Lord Palmerston moved for leave to bring in a bill to amend the law relating to conspiracy for the commissian of murder, to which an amendment was moved, that while the House sympathised with France in reference to the recent atrocious attempt upon the life of the Emperor; it deemed it inexpedient to legislate in compliance with the demands of the French government. Leave, however, was granted to bring in the bill, which was read a first time; and on the 19th, in a debate on the second reading, Mr. Gibson moved as an amendment, that the House had heard with much concern that recent attempts upon the life of the Emperor of the French had been devised in England, and expressed its detestation of such guilty enterprises, that it was ready at all times to assist in remedying any defects in the criminal law proved to exist, yet regreted that her Majesty's government, previously to inviting the House to amend the law of conspiracy, had not made some reply to the despatch received from the French government, dated January 20th, 1858. On a division the numbers were, for Lord Palmerston's motion, 215; against it 234. The amendment was therefore carried; and in consequence Lord Palmerston and the ministers tendered their resignation to her Majesty, who accepted it, and entrusted the formation of a new Cabinet to Lord Derby. The House then adjourned till the 1st of March, when the Earl of Derby explained the position and intentions of the new Ministry. On the 10th the Earl of Malmesbury placed on the table the correspondence between her Majesty's government and that of the Emperor of the French, and said that the correspondence had concluded in all honour and good feeling on both sides.

On the 21st of July the Bill for admitting the Jews to sit in Parliament was read and passed, and on the 25th Baron de Rothschild presented himself at the table to be sworn. A copy of the new oath having been offered to him, he stated that he had a conscientious objection to taking the oath in the form tendered to him, and he was thereupon requested to withdraw. Lord J. Russell then moved in conformity with the Act, that Baron Rothschild, a person professing the Jewish religion, may henceforward, on taking the oath prescribed in the present session, be entitled to sit and vote, omitting the words, "upon the true faith of a Christian." This resolution being carried, Baron Rosthschild reappeared at the table, and desiring to be sworn on the Old Testament, the oath was administered to him accordingly, and he took his seat in the House. On the 2nd of August the session of Parliament closed.

INCOME AND EXPENDITURE FOR THE YEAR, 1857.

Income, £70,390,343; expenditure, £70,354,256, which includes £1,125,206 compensation to Denmark for abolition of the Sound Dues. The total public debt of the United Kingdom was £803,733,958 on March 31st, 1857. The amount of property and income-tax £15,625,917, of which that of England and Scotland was £10,933,772, that for Ireland £4,692,145. The total funded debt of the United Kingdom was £779,701,417, and the unfunded debt £24,032,541.

COMMERCE, MANUFACTURES, &c.

(Continued from p. 389.)

The grand total value of the imports of goods and merchandise for 1858 was £164,683,832, and that of the exports £139,782,779, making a gross total trade on the part of the British Empire of £304,366,611. From foreign countries the imports were £125,970,332, and from British possessions abroad £38,613,500. Of the £130,782,779 of exports, £116,608,756 represented the produce of the United Kingdom, and £23,174,523 that of foreign and colonial countries re-exported. The classification of imports according to countries is as follows:—from Russia 11 to 12 millions; from Prussia £4,107,509; from the Hanseatic Cities £4,319,065; Holland £6,265,257; Belgium £3,060,585; France £13,271,890; Portugal £1,079,778; Spain £2258,288; Cuba and Porto Rico £3,798,778; the Two Sicilies £1,656,353; Turkey, Moldavia, and Wallachia about £4,000,000; Egypt £6,026,191; the United States and California £34,258,498; Brazil £2,275,497; Buenos Ayres £1,191,977; Chili £1,900,322; Peru £4,822,254; China and Hong Kong £7,073,509; and Africa (west coast) £1,563,085. From the Colonies the imports are, Canada £2,663,034; Mauritius £1,534,953; Cape of Good Hope £1,669,920; Ceylon £1,679.852; the British East Indies or India proper £14,989,039; West Indies £4,890,488; British Guiana £1,451,341; New Brunswick £1,102,111; New South Wales £1,930:147; Victoria £2,110,277. In every other case imports are under a million sterling.

The exports from England to foreign parts are:—Russia £2,724,609; to Prussia £1,956,199; Hanover £1,640,189; to the Hanse Towns £9,031,877; Holland £5,473,312; Belgium £1,855,257; France £4,863,131; Portugal £1,432,238; Spai

£2,071,219; Cuba £1,797,219; Sardinia £1,174,580; the Two Sicilies £1,560,166; the Austrian Territories £1,298,199 (our imports from Austria are under a million); Turkey £4,255,612; Egypt £1,985,829; the United States £13,994,815; California £496,633; Brazil £3,984,917; Buenos Ayres £1,008,818; Chili £1,117,580; Peru £1,113,155; and China (exclusive of Hong Kong) £1,730,778. To Canada were exported £1,737,751; West Indies £1792,323; New South Wales £2,919,544: Victoria £5.417,601; Hong Kong £1,145,660; India £16,782,386; Cape of Good Hope £1,602,612. The above imports represent the computed, and the exports the declared, real value of the goods.

The imported articles included 2,325,439 lbs. of beads and bugles of glass; 1,156,476 cwts. of sulphur; 2,055,596 lbs. of bristles; 10,338,404 lbs. of cocoa; 60,697,265 lbs. of coffee; 10,000,000 quarters of wheat and other grain; 4,000,000 cwts. of flour; 9,235,128 cwts. of raw cotton; 1,283,905 cwts. of flax; 3,790,262 lbs. of goats' hair or wool; 1,638,360 cwts. of hemp; 3.951,945 lbs. of tanned, &c., hides; 3,637,178 pairs of gloves; 775,183 pairs of boots, shoes, and goloshes: 486,988 cwts. of nitre; 778,230 cwts. of palm oil; 1,721,958 cwts. of potatos (an immense increase); 3,692,023 cwts. of rice; 8,155,256 cwts. of raw and waste silk; 3,764,891 sheep and lamb skins; 1,241,370 goat skins; 12,357,508 lbs. of pepper; 1,064,663 gallons of brandy; 130,173 gallons only of Geneva or Hollands gin; 7,311,219 gallons of rum; 9,010,796 cwts. of raw sugar; 75,432,535 lbs. of tea; 59,643,780 lbs. of tobacco; 2,573,925 lbs. of cigars and snuff; 5,791,636 gallons wine; 22,673,048 hoops; 126,738.723 lbs. of sheep and lambs wool (including alpaca and llama wool); 3,458 horses, 89,001 oxen, bulls, and cows, and 184,482 sheep were added to the live stock of the country.

The gross amount of customs' duty received at all the ports of the kingdom was £24,155,852.

The exported produce of the United Kingdom in 1858 included 1,611,289 cwts. of soda; £1,559,195 of apparel and slops (old and new); 8,840,647 lbs. of gunpowder; 3,068,595 lbs. of stearine candles; 1,146,313 cwts. of cement; 6,292,190 tons of coals; 1,517,308,665 yards of white or plain calicoes; 785,666,472 yards of printed or dyed calicoes (cotton goods); 7,227,370 yards of cambric and muslins (plain); 3,952,534 yards of printed ditto; 7,335,580 yards of fustians, velvets, &c.; 2,598,463 yards of cotton and linen mixed; 498,133 dozen pairs of stockings; 200,016,902 lbs. of cotton twist and yarn; £3,462,332 of haberdashery and millinery; 663,400 cwt. of hardware and cutlery; 121,215 dozen hats of all kinds; £187,270 of jewelry; 6,364,858 lbs. of wrought leather (exclusive of saddlery and harness); 32,047,492 lbs. linen

yarn; 110,916,880 yards of plain linen goods; 5,998,075 yards of printed ditto, and 1,711,437 yards of cambric and lawn; 3,629,339 yards of sailcloth; 3,176,134 lbs. of linen thread for sewing, and 4,517,730 lbs. of cotton thread for the same purpose; £1,097,278 of steam-engines; £2,542,074 of other machinery; 6,515,333 gallons of linseed oil; 592.791 tons of salt; 490,078 lbs. of silk stuffs and ribbons; £700,000 of fringes and mixed silks; 1,325,311 gallons of British spirits; £1,351,151 tin plates; 14,455,984 lbs. of sheep's wool; 76,584,532 yards of mixed woollen stuffs, carpets, blankets, &c.; 565,709 pieces of woollen cloths of all kinds, and 2,342,908 pieces of worsted stuffs.

37,751 registered vessels of 5,609,623 tons, employing 288,345 seamen belonging to the United Kingdom and the Channel Islands, and British possessions in 1858. Of these 35,512 were sailing ships, and 2,239 steamers. In England some 168,603 seamen are employed as crews; in Scotland 32,962; and in Ireland 14,289, making a total for the United Kingdom of 215,754 seamen.

51,670 British vessels of 12,831,405 tons, and 45,573 foreign vessels entered and cleared from and to foreign countries and British possession in 1858.

The importation of cotton for the year 1859, was 1,000,000,000 lbs.

In the year ending 1858 there were 9,531 miles of railway, and Acts obtained for 1,070 miles more. The present railways have cost £325,875,507.

QUESTIONS.

(*Continued from page* 432.)

1. Relate particulars of the siege of Mooltan, and the subsequent battle, also the name of the English General who commanded?
2. Give an account of the Burmese war in 1853, its cause and results?
3. What protocol was signed at Vienna, by what Powers, for what purpose, and in what year?
4. How did the Emperor of Russia act upon the occasion?
5. What alliance did England make, and when was war declared against Russia by England and France?
6. Who was appointed Commander-in-Chief of the British Army?
7. Relate the particulars of the bombardment of Odessa, the loss of the British steamer, and the attack of the allied fleets upon Bomarsund, with its results?
8. Give an account of the battle of the Alma, of the march of the army to Balaclava, of the act of daring of the young naval officer and the name of the admiral to whom he gave the despatches?
9. To what famous city did the allies lay siege?
10. Mention the terrible disease which so wasted the allied armies, and their noble endurance under their sufferings?
11. When did the grand attack upon Sebastopol begin?
12. Mention some circumstances of the siege?
13. Relate particulars of the battle of Balaclava, the attack upon the 93rd Highlanders by enormous masses of the Russian infantry, and then by their cavalry, also the ever to be remembered charge of the Greys and Enniskilleners, and 1st Royals, the 4th Dragoon Guards, and the 5th?
14. What act of atrocity did the Russians commit while their own cavalry were mingled with ours?
15. When was fought the battle of Inkerman, and state the number of our troops and that of the Russians?
16. Relate the effects of the dreadful hurricane in the Black Sea, and the date?
16. Mention particulars of the violation of the flag of truce, and by what name it is known?
17. Give an account of the actions in the Sea of Azoff?
18. Relate particulars of the siege of Sebastopol from the 6th of June to the 17th?
19. What caused the projected assault on the 18th to fail?

20. When did Lord Raglan die, and mention some particulars about him?
21. When was begun the last great bombardment of Sebastopol, and what were its effects?
22. Relate the attack upon Sweaborg?
23. Where is Kars situated, describe the Russian attack upon it, and what English officers defended it?
24. Describe the battle that ensued, its result, and the number of Russians left dead on the field?
25. Who proposed negotiations for peace, where was the Treaty signed, and what were the terms?
26. What was the total loss of our army by death, and how many of them died in actual warfare?
27. At what number was the French loss estimated, and also that of the Russians?
28. Mention particulars of the war with Persia, and its result?
29. Who was sent to relieve Sir Hugh Wheeler at Cawnpore, and relate the massacre of the women and children at that place?
30. Describe the indefatigable exertions of General Havelock, and the number of battles he gained in his attempts to relieve Lucknow?
31. Give an account of the mutiny of the Sepoys and their horrid atrocities, and of the siege of Delhi?
32. Who was appointed Commander-in-Chief in India?
33. Describe his masterly retreat from Lucknow, and its occupation by the British troops?
34. Mention particulars of the war in China?
35. When was peace made with China and upon what terms?
36. What eminent members of the Protestant church became catholics?
37. Who were the Vicars Apostolic at that period?
38. In what year were they increased in number, to what amount, and how were the districts divided.
39. When took place the restoration of the Hierarchy?
40. How many and what were the suffragan sees?
41. Who was created Archbishop of Westminster?
41. What protest was made against it and by whom?
42. When and where took place the enthronement of Cardinal Wiseman?
43. Mention some of the speeches in Parliament upon the occasion, and the division on the motion?

STATISTICS OF THE CATHOLIC CHURCH.

44. How many Catholic churches and chapels are there in Great Britain, where mass is celebrated?
45. What is the number of the secular clergy and regulars?
46. How many convents and religious houses?
47. How many colleges and where situated?
48. Mention the principal convents?
49. Mention some particulars of Her Majesty's speech to Parliament in the session of 1847, and the debates upon it?
50. What was the financial statement of the Chancellor of the Exchequer?

51. What import bill was passed in 1850?
52. What statement was made as to the Colonial policy?
53. Relate the substance of the Queen's speech on the opening of the session of 1856, and in that of 1858?
54. What motion was made on the 8th of February respecting a conspiracy, and what was the result of the motion?
55. When was the Bill for admitting the Jews into Parliament passed?
57. What was the amount of the income for the year 1857, and what the expenditure?
58. What was the amount of the Public Debt on the 31st March, 1857, and what the amount of the Property and Income-tax?
59. State the total value of the imports for 1858, also the gross exports?
60. What was the number of registered vessels and the number of seamen employed in the United Kingdom?
61. What was the importation of cotton?
62. In the year 1858 how many miles of Railway were there completed, and Acts obtained for how many more?
63. How much have the present Railways cost?

OPINIONS OF THE PRESS.

THE HISTORY OF ENGLAND. For the use of Schools and Young Persons. By W. F. Mylius, Master of Manor House School, Chelsea. Sixth edition. London, Dublin, and Derby: Richardson and Son.

From the very commencement of our literary labours, there has not been a single point on which we have insisted so uniformly and with so much earnestness as the necessity of purifying and improving the books employed in our elementary education; nor is there any department in which the necessity was so urgent and so unquestionable as that of English History. From the most purely elementary catechism of the History of England, up to the more elaborate compendiums designed for the use of advanced schools and colleges, there was not one that did not breathe in every page a spirit of hostility if not of contempt towards the Catholic religion. Mr. Mylius has the merit of having applied himself fearlessly to provide for the important want thus created in our Catholic literature. His History has long been known in our schools, and where it has been known is deservedly popular. It makes no pretensions, to use the author's own modest language, to novelty or originality, but it possesses the less equivocal merit of being carefully compiled from the best and safest sources; and what it is wanting in brilliancy or novelty is more than compensated by the solidity and justness of its views, and the soundness of its principles and opinions. The edition now before us is carried down to the present time, containing a brief summary even of the events of the present reign. Nor can there be a better and more convincing evidence of the merit of the work than the fact of its having passed through six large impressions, each more widely circulated than its predecessor.—*Dublin Review*, Oct., 1849, p. 256.

This short and elementary History being designed for the use of Catholic seminaries, certain transactions in the narrative are placed in a different light from what they appear in the ordinary Histories of England. This the author tells us is done under a conviction that these facts have been distorted by previous historians, an assumption that will not be admitted by Protestant readers; and so far the work is liable to attack. With the exception of these points the History is very fairly written, and may be advantageously perused, especially those parts that are devoted to disquisitions on the manners, customs, attire, and literature of our ancestors. The present is the sixth edition of the work, and it brings down the History of England to the present time.—*Morning Herald.*

We are very glad to receive a sixth edition of this excellent compendium of English History. Most of our readers will know the book too well to render it necessary for us to point out its many merits. It is fair, calm, and moderate in its tone, and is an eminently useful abridgment, especially for its sketches of the recent ecclesiastical affairs of the Catholic Church, in which, of course, the ordinary books are either untrustworthy or deficient.—*Tablet.*

Mylius' History of England is a most valuable epitome, designed principally for the use of Roman Catholic seminaries. The general catechetical table is very instructive, and the chronology accurate and refreshing.—*Limerick Chronicle.*